KOLHAPUR DISTRICT GAZETTEER

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MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

Government of Maharashtra

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

(Revised edition of Volume XXIV of the original Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency relating to Kolhapur)

BOMBAY
DIRECTORATE OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE
1960

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT

FIRST EDITION . 1886

PRINTED IN INDIA BY THE MANAGER, GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS, BOMBAY AND PUBLISHED BY THE DIRECTOR, GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE, BOMBAY-4.

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PREFACE

The Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency was originally compiled between 1874 and 1884. This revised edition has been prepared under the orders of the Government of Maharashtra. The work was entrusted to the Bombay District Gazetteers (Revision) Editorial Board which was specially created for that purpose in 1949. The following members constituted that Board :—

Chief Secretary to Government (Shri M. D. Bhat, I.C.S., 1949-52 ; Shri M. D. Bhansali, I.C.S., 1952-56) ;

Prof. C. N. Vakil, Bombay ;

Dr. G. S. Ghurye, Bombay ;

Dr. S. M. Katre, Poona ;

Dr. S. C. Nandimath, Bagalkot ,

Director of Archives (Dr. P. M. Joshi) .

Executive Editor and Secretary (Prof. D G Karve, 1949-52 ; Prof M. R. Palande, 1952-60).

After the reorganisation of States in 1957 the Board was reconstituted and consisted of the following members :—

Chief Secretary to Government (Shri N. T. Mone, I.C.S.).[1]

Shri Vaikunth L. Mehta, Bombay.

Dr. S. G Panandikar, retired Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay.

Dr. S. M. Katre, Director, Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute, Poona.

Shri Maganbhai Desai, Vice-Chancellor Gujarat University, Ahmedabad.

Director of Archives (Dr. P M Joshi)

Executive Editor and Secretary (Prof. M R Palande)

With the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in May 1960 the Editorial Board was again reconstituted. The Board at present consists of the following members :—

Chief Secretary to Government (Shri N. T Mone, I.C.S)

Shri Vaikunth L. Mehta Bombay.

Dr. S. G. Panandikar, retired Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay.

Dr S. M. Katre, Director, Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute, Poona.

Shri S. L. Karandikar, Poona.

Director of Archives (Dr. P. M Joshi).

Executive Editor and Secretary (Shri P. Setu Madhava Rao, M.A., I.A.S.).

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[1] Shri M. D. Bhansali, I.C.S., retired in 1956 and Shri K. L. Panjabi, I.C.S., who came in his place also retired at the end of the same year

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2—History, Chapter 3—The People and Their Culture, and Chapter 20—Places of Interest and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at page 897.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

Bombay,
December, 1960.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As EARLY as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts of the Bombay Presidency. The following extract* will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled :—

"Government called on the Revenue Commissioner to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report the fullest available information regarding their districts. ....Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes they possessed advantages which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country, the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, and their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and diet, and can observe the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end, and may be made available for self-government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes.

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Thana, and Khandesh. Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1842."

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of the Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organizational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication, however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index volume was published.

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*Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I. Part I (History of Gujarat) pp. III and IV.

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871. He said :—

> "My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration. But a succinct and well conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collector's personal enquiries..................But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of civil government."*

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting administration

The Gazetteer had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three Parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the Volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with History and was split up into two Parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Dekhan and Southern Maratha Country ; Volume IX was devoted to the Population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Mussalmans and Parsis, but there was no corresponding Volume devoted to the Population of Maharashtra or Karnatak ; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining Volumes dealt with the various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the District Volumes had two or three Parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined Volume for some districts, as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the District Volumes though the accounts of particular

*Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat) p. VII.

items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government Offices and, in respect of social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subjects.

This Gazetteer compiled over seventy years ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, the scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteer should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This new edition has been prepared under the direction of that Editorial Board. With the reorganisation of States in 1956 and with the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteers had previously been compiled will be taken up and new District Gazetteers will be compiled in accordance with the common pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over 80 years after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments, whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteer bearing on archaeology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their case, however, some restatement is occasionally necessary in view of later investigations and new archæological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition the results of such subsequent research. The revision of the old Volumes has, in fact, meant an entire re-writing of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information was obtained from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialized subjects were obtained from competent scholars.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values. Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half a century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteer have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena. For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously

accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the main sections of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district maps given in this edition are also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteer will be published in two series :—

1. *The General Series.*—This will comprise Volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, People and Their Culture, History, Language and Literature, Botany, and Public Administration.

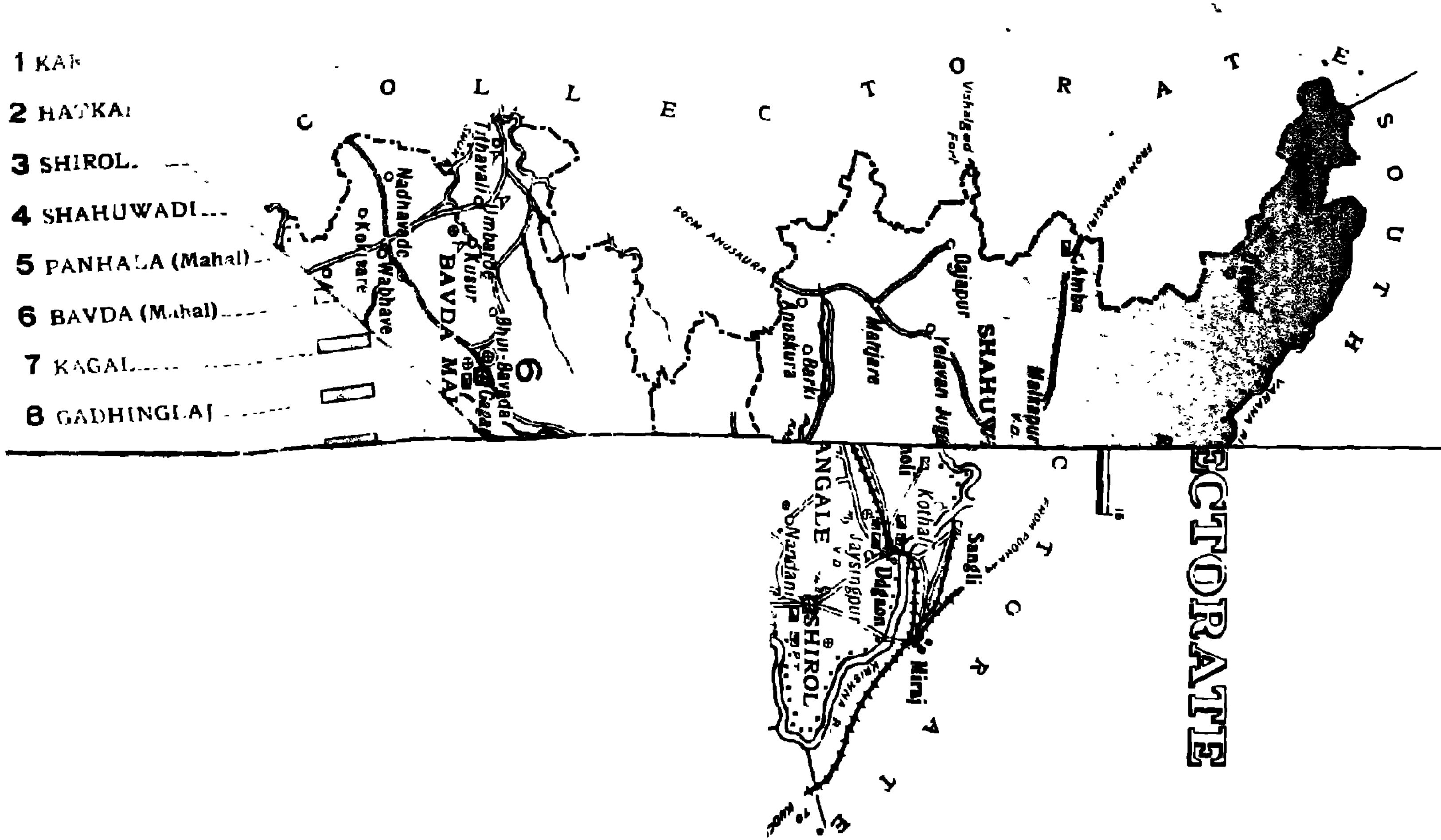
2. *The District Series.*—This will contain one Volume for every district of the Maharashtra State. The information given in all Volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all districts.

It was originally thought feasible to number the district volumes in the alphabetical order in the District Series and accordingly the Poona Volume which was the first revised District Gazetteer to be compiled and published by the Board (in 1954) was numbered as Volume XX. However, the arrangement was not found to be suitable and it was, therefore, subsequently decided not to give any number to any volume.

In the preparation of this volume the Board has received every assistance from Gazetteers unit, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, Government of India. A draft copy of this volume was sent to the Gazetteers unit and was returned with valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in the volume. The Government of India gives a grant-in-aid of Rs. 6,000 per each volume towards the cost of compilation and 40 per cent. of the actual printing charges.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

Bombay,
December, 1960.


1 KAR
2 HATKA
3 SHIROL
4 SHAHUWADI
5 PANHALA (Mahal)
6 BAVDA (Mahal)
7 KAGAL
8 GADHINGLAJ
COLLECTORATE
SOUTH
ECTORATE
Vishalgad Fort
FROM ANUSKURA
Amba
Malkapur
Gajapur
SHAHUW
Yelavan Juga
Manjare
Barki
Anuskura
Tirthavali
Umbarde
Kusur
BAVDA MA
Bhui-Bavada
Gagan
Nadhavade
Wabhave
6
Sangli
Miraj
Kothali
Udgaon
Jaysingpur
ANGALE
SHIROL
Nandani
KRISHNA R.

KOLHAPUR

PART I

CHAPTER 1—PHYSICAL FEATURES AND NATURAL RESOURCES.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features

SITUATION.

THE DISTRICT OF KOLHAPUR[1] lies between 15° and 17° north latitude and 73° and 74° east longitude. It has an area of 3,188·4 square miles[2] and a population of 13,08,060 according to the 1951 Census. It is bounded on the north by the district of South Satara; on the west by the district of Ratnagiri; and on the south and the east by the Belgaum district of Mysore State. For administrative purposes the district is divided into two prants, Northern and Southern[3]. Each of these prants is sub-divided into four talukas and two petas (or mahals). The average area of a taluka or peta works out to 265·7 square miles comprising 91 villages on an average (including towns) and a population of 1,09,005.

[1] Kolhapur is a district newly formed after the merger of Kolhapur and other Indian States with the State of Bombay. It consists of 956 villages of the former Kolhapur State, five villages of the former Kurundwad State, one village of the former Miraj Senior State and seven villages that were formerly in the Belgaum district.

[2] The area figure of the district supplied to the Census authorities by the Surveyor General of India was 2,756·3 square miles. The area figure given by the Census authorities were obtained by them from the District Inspector of Land Records or from Local Records.

[3] From 1st November 1956, consequent on the Reorganisation of States, the Chandgad taluka of Belgaum district, with an area of 394 square miles and a population of 80,513, was merged with the Southern Division of Kolhapur District as a separate taluka of the Division.

* The sections on 'Geography' have been contributed by Prof. C. D. Deshpande, Deputy Director of Education, Government of Maharashtra.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

The administrative divisions, with their area, number of villages and towns, and population, according to the Census of 1951, are given below:—

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (WITH AREA, NUMBER OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS AND POPULATION ACCORDING TO CENSUS OF 1951).

Prant.	Name of Taluka or Peta.	Area in sq. miles.	Number of villages.	Number of towns.	Population
Northern Division.	Shahuwadi ..	407·5	130	1	86,765
	Panhala Peta ..	218·3	101	1	96,379
	Hatkanangle ..	235·3	46	7	1,69,700
	Shirol ..	203·8	44	4	1,21,192
	Bavada Peta ..	260·6	76	..	52,022
	Radhanagari ..	344·5	198	..	87,205
Southern Division.	Karvir ..	262·4	104	1	2,66,299
	Kagal ..	212·0	77	3	1,10,734
	Gadhinglaj Peta..	191·6	87	1	1,11,397
	Ajra Peta ..	205·3	79	1	59,025
	Bhudargad ..	253·1	96	..	65,929
	Chandgad* ..	394·0	130	..	80,513
	Total ..	3,188·4	1,078	19	13,08,060

PHYSICAL SETTING RELIEF AND DRAINAGE.

THE PHYSICAL SETTING of the Kolhapur district can be best appreciated in the background of its geology relief and drainage. The details of the geology of the district appear elsewhere. It may be noted, in general, that over a major portion of the district the Deccan 'trap' influences the landscape; only in the southern extremities the rocks of the Dharwar and Lower Kaladgi series introduce a change in the topography. The district, on the whole, is a part of the Deccan table-land with an average height of 1800 ft. above sea level, with the Sahyadrian Scarp forming the most prominent feature along its western administrative boundary. From the gently uneven and mature looking crest-line of the Sahyadries, the Kolhapur portion of the plateau is marked by several hill ranges which emerge from the main range and develop an eastward or north-eastward trend. Some of them extend up to 30 miles while others terminate after a short stretch. But all these ranges have that characteristic 'Lava' topography consisting of flat tops and steep escarpments on flanks which carry several terraces or 'steps'. The ranges rise to about 1,000 to 1,500 ft.

* See footnote regarding Chandgad taluka, p. 1.

above the valley floors. A long period of erosion on the horizontally laid lava flows explains their general appearance. Water action has carved out river valleys and their tributary valleys leaving the harder material as residual hill ranges. From a fairly broad base, these hills rise in a series of terraces, which are not unlike a flight of steps, culminating in a summit level that is noted for its remarkably flat table-lands separated by low saddles. A laterite capping marks many of these plateau tops, and altogether, this step-like mature landscape has earned the Swedish name 'trape' topography. Such landscape features can be seen in the main Sahyadrian range lying in this district, in the Vishalgad-Panhala range, in the Phonda-Sangaon, and the Kagal, Bhudargad and Ajra ranges. Only in the environs of Ajra does this landscape change to some extent due to the change in the underlying rock.

The drainage pattern of the Kolhapur district has three important aspects. The Sahyadris form the main water-divide separating the eastern drainage from that flowing in the west to the Arabian Sea. Secondly, the western flowing streams are ungraded and run down the Sahyadrian scarp face with a tremendous velocity, with the result that the scarp face presents a highly eroded appearance when seen from the Konkan side. At the base of the scarp, that is in the Konkan proper, these parallel flowing streams lose their force, deposit the debris brought from the main range, and develop a sluggish and meandering course to the Arabian Sea, but it is to be noted that only their upper most reaches lie within the administrative boundaries of this district. The drainage pattern of the plateau Kolhapur differs a good deal in several respects from that of the Konkan streams. It is, first of all, well developed, and geared to the base level of the Krishna which has mastered all the river courses of the district. The rivers occupy wider valleys; there is a good tributary development, though in some cases the head-waters have been 'captured' by the fast flowing streams of the main range draining the region to the Konkan lowlands. Thus, from north to south, the district is drained by the Varna, Panchaganga, Dudhganga, Vedaganga and Hiranyakeshi The Varna has a long course, but a much restricted basin. The Panchaganga, on the other hand, commands a large drainage area through its main tributaries, the Kasari, Kumbhi, Tulsi and Bhogavati. The southern rivers, the Dudhaganga with its main tributaries, the Vedaganga and the Hiranyakeshi have long courses but smaller and independent valleys. There is also an interesting contrast in the direction of flow of these plateau rivers of the district. The Varna flows from the north-west to south-east, the Panchaganga from due west to east, while the southern rivers flow from south-west to north-east. This is most probably due to the geological structure underlying and the denudation sequence of the Krishna river which controls in a large manner the flow and erosive capacity of these rivers.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features. PHYSICAL SETTING RELIEF AND DRAINAGE.

There are also some similarities between these rivers. They share a common monsoonal flood regime; they develop the highly significant flood plains and flood terraces which, locally known as *Malai*, are highly prized for soil fertility. The physical setting of the small valleys that the rivers occupy is suitable for constructing weirs, locally known as *bandharas*, which facilitate good irrigation. Except in the Lower Panchaganga these *bandharas* are quite common. Under the influence of new economic forces, most of the river valleys which formerly produced good meadow grass, have now been turned to the cultivation of rice, and more recently to sugarcane, an important crop which influences practically every aspect of rural economy. The final common feature shared by these rivers is the control exercised by the Krishna river as a master stream. The Krishna from its confluence with the Varna forms the eastern boundary of the Kolhapur district down-stream for about forty miles. It has a well entrenched meandering course through a black soil plain, and is joined by the Panchaganga near Narsobawadi and by the Dudhaganga near Yedur which is a little outside the district boundary. The southern most river, Hiranyakeshi, empties its waters in the Ghataprabha which in its turn is a tributary of the Krishna, near Ingli outside the limits of this district.

The district is bounded by South Satara on the north, Ratnagiri on the west, and Belgaum on the south and the east. From a geographical point of view the *Varna* in the north forms a common boundary between it and South Satara; in the north-east the rivers *Krishna* and *Dudhaganga* run between it and Belgaum; and in the west the Sahyadrian water-shed largely separates it from Ratnagiri.

HILL RANGES. Sahyadrian Scarp and the Crest.

THE SAHYADRIAN CREST proper is not a crest in the normally understood sense of being a continuous hill chain. It is broken in several places by stream erosion on both the flanks. The water-shed which divides the eastern drainage from the western is marked by a succession of hill top features separated by low saddles. In height, the crest-line proper varies from 3,300 feet to as low as 2,000 feet above sea level. To the west, in Konkan, this crest-line offers a greatly eroded scarp face marked below it by exposures of basaltic bands. In many places rapid erosion by the Konkan streams has literally pushed back the crest-line features into the plateau. This tremendous erosive action has well caused a general recession of the main water-shed towards the east and has left the remnants of original scarps in the shape of highly dissected hills at the base of the Sahyadries in the Konkan. The Sahyadrian crest line owing to the formation of several isolated basaltic table-lands has been a region of fortified towns which have played a significant role in the Maratha history. In the north stands Vishalgad (3,362 feet); in the middle is Bavada; in the southern area lies Bhudargad. An interesting feature of this crest-line region is the existence of truncated

Physical Features
HILL RANGES.
Sahyadrian Scar and the Crest.

valleys of the plateau streams. The upper reaches of such valleys have been captured by Konkan streams so that these appear as well marked gaps in the Sahyadrian rampart. From the climatic point of view, too, it is possible that these gaps mean a better south-westerly monsoonal rainfall in the plateau valleys. From the human point of view their importance is no less. In the Maratha history, these gaps had a tactical importance. Even in the present times, the routes from the plateau to Konkan run through these gaps.

Eastern Ranges.

From this highly dissected backbone several ranges extend towards the east. The northern-most is the Vishalgad-Panhala range. Emanating from a 3,362 feet peak the range maintains a fairly uniform level at a height of over 3,000 feet upto a distance of about 30 miles and extends for another 20 miles at a lower level, almost abutting the Krishna basin in the east. The summit levels of this range are remarkably flat upto Panhala and Jyotiba, and even further east its flat tops, though in a shrunken form, continue to be an interesting feature in the landscape. The flanks of the Panhala range show intense gully erosion and development of minor ranges north and south, as for example, those near Manjra and Borivade. Another interesting feature is the development of structural terraces on platforms on both the flanks. A further feature of especial interest is the existence of many gaps and saddles along the range which, as could be expected, are traversed by well constructed roads. The very summits, too. are not without their human significance Panhala was chosen as a defensive point since the days of the Adilshahi rulers, now in its modern setting it is a popular hill station. Jyotiba, almost at the same level, is a well-known centre of pilgrimage. Other parts of this range are given to rough grazing and hay-making. Steeper slopes are marked with a fairly good forest cover in the west but this increasingly deteriorates into poor scrub and grass towards the drier east. Structural terraces on both the sides form belts of fairly well developed agriculture supporting a large number of villages.

Central Ranges.

In the central portions of the district the hill ranges exhibit a similar form and also possess almost the same height. These differ from the Panhala range in two important respects. First, they have a south-west and north-east trend, and secondly, they extend only to about a length of 15 miles. Such is the hill range separating the Kumbhi river from the Dhamani; the Pal Donger (also known as Tumzai range locally) which terminates in the shape of a prong near Sangrul; and the small hill range which separates the Tulsi from the Bhogavati. South of the Bhogavati lies the Phonda Sangaon range which extends from the Sahyadrian Crest line north-eastwards to a stretch of 35 miles right upto a point near Sangaon village, and a branch of it extends right upto the town of Kolhapur. In general appearance this range has features identical to those of the Panhala except that the summit

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. HILL RANGES. Central Ranges.

plateaus are not so uniform in development. The range has undergone a greater erosion and bears consequentially a more denuded appearance that is so clearly visible in a succession of saddles.

Southern Ranges.

The southern hill ranges of the Kolhapur district maintain the same trend and the landscape; thus for instance is the Kagal range and the Bhudargad range proper. In the southern extremity of the district, in the Gadhinglaj taluka, the topography gets much more varied--numerous minor hill ranges separated by small valleys—but inspite of this small-scale variation in landscape, it has the same importance from the human point of view as the hill ranges of the north. Its major plateau tops like the Samangad Fort were well-known defensive points in the Maratha days. The other flat tops at lower levels are generally given to grazing and slopes to forests; scarps are bare rock surfaces; lower terraces favour cultivation and human settlement.

RIVERS. Varna.

The *Varna* takes its source waters in Prachitgad area of the Satara district and after a well entrenched course it collects the waters of an important southern tributary—the Kadvi which takes its source waters near Ambaghat. This river takes two tributaries, the Shali and the Ambardi. The Varna has a fairly south-eastern trend in the upper reaches and after a stretch of about 50 miles its meets the Krishna at Haripur about one mile south-west of Sangli. From the economic point of view the Varna has a fertile agricultural basin especially in its lower reaches. In the fair seasons the Varna and its chief feeder Kadvi, are fordable; but during rains boats ply at some places on the Varna. In the lower Varna the economic development is seriously handicapped by soil erosion. For a fairly long stretch the river acts as a boundary between this district and the South Satara.

Panchaganga.

The *Panchaganga* is formed, as has been noted already, by four streams, the Kasari, the Kumbhi, the Tulsi and the Bhogawati. Local tradition believes in an underground stream Saraswati which together with the other four streams make the Panchaganga.

(i) *The Kasari.*—The Kasari is an important stream. It rises near the village of Gajapur and flows south-east upto Dhangarwadi for about ten miles and then eastwards for a stretch of another twenty-five miles. The stream is wide and receives its source waters from a fairly large triangular area lying between watersheds of the Vishalgad range in the north and the Waghajai in the south. Just above Bhogaon the river receives another important southern tributary called Mangari; below Bhogaon it develops into a wide alluvial plain in which the river has developed meanders.

(ii) *The Kumbhi.*—The *Kumbhi* rises near Bavda and flows north-eastwards for about fifteen miles upto Kirwai. From

RIVERS.

Panchaganga.

thence it flows eastwards and receives an important tributary Dhamani, near Chaugalewadi. It then develops wide basin underlain by alluvium.. North-east of Sangrul it has a sharp bend eastwards after which it meets the river Bhogawati near Bahireshwar.

(*iii*) *The Tulsi.*—The Tulsi rises about five miles east of the Kumbhi and flows parallel to the north-east and effects a junction with the Bhogavati at Bid. Its lower reach is marked by a wide stretch of alluvium.

(*iv*) *The Bhogawati.*—This is the chief of the four streams and takes its rise in the Sahyadris, a few miles from the Phonda Pass and after a northerly course of about 25 miles is joined by the Tulsi near the historical village of Bid. The source waters of the Bhogavati river have now been impounded to form the Radhanagari Tank for the purposes of both irrigation and hydro-electricity. Unlike the northern tributary streams of the Panchaganga river the Bhogavati has a wide alluvial floor particularly below Phejivade. Below this village the river develops considerable meanders and a fairly entrenched course in its middle reaches. In the lower reaches the valley floor widens to a still larger extent. After its junction with the Tulsi and the Kumbhi the valley floor is four to five miles wide. Here it is bordered by low residual hills and joined by several small tributary streams. About four miles north-west of the Kolhapur city, the Bhogavati effects with the Kasari its junction at Prayag.

The Prayag confluence marks the beginning of the Panchaganga river proper which after receiving the waters of the four tributaries continues in a larger pattern the flow of waters received from above. North of Kolhapur it has a wide alluvial plain. After developing this plain the river resumes its course eastwards. From Shiroli to its junction with the Krishna near Narsobawadi it has an extensive alluvial floor bordered by the large worn out stumps of the Alta portion of the Panhala in the north and the Hupari part of the Phonda Sangaon range in the south. A characteristic feature of this basin is the contrast between the rounded worn out features locally known as *Mals* and the generally entrenched nature of all the streams. A further noteworthy aspect is the deeply incised course of the Panchaganga itself. From Mangaon, the river flows in a deep bed that is well below 40 feet from the surrounding plain. Further downstream it develops an incised meander-core which includes the Narsobawadi area.

Dudhaganga.

The south-western region of the Kolhapur district is principally drained by the *Dudhaganga* and her important tributary the *Vedaganga.* Rising in the main Sahyadris, the Dudhaganga traces a north-easterly course. It develops a widening alluvial basin enclosed by the Phonda range on the left and by the

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Dudhaganga.

Kagal range on its right. After receiving numerous tributary streams which may be more properly called gullies (excepting the Waki river in its upper reach), the river takes a sweeping curve due east below the village Belawale; near Shidhanerli which is about six miles west of the Poona-Bangalore trunk road, the river starts its well incised course; from here it acts for about 10 to 12 miles as a boundary between this district and Belgaum, and flows beyond the Kolhapur limits for about 25 miles to join the Krishna at Yedur. Throughout the course of this river, there is a visible contrast between its well worked agricultural flanks and rising hill sides overlooking them. In the wetter west, the hill slopes carry a good, though declining, vegetation cover of a scrub type; eastwards, the drier climate produces a grassland ('the *mals*') landscape. The alluvial floor on the other hand is given to rich meadow grass, and now-a-days increasingly to rice and sugarcane.

The Vedaganga.—This tributary takes its rise in the Sahyadrian main range where the Bhudargad range begins its north-eastern trend. In its upper reaches, the river has a narrow valley and a meandering course. Just about the middle of this portion, the Bhudargad fort (3,206 ft.) dominates the entire landscape. Further downstream the valley opens out, near Murgud, and takes a more easterly course up to Mhakwe. At Kurli, it is joined by the Kapshi stream. From this point onwards the river enters the administrative area of the Belgaum district and joins the Dudhaganga near Bhoj.

Hiranyakeshi.

A part of the river runs through Kolhapur district, but its headwaters proper lie well outside this district. The valley is much narrower than that of the Vedaganga and is flanked on both sides by fairly high elevations, many reaching over 3,000 ft. above sea level of the Bhudargad and the Ajra ranges. The hill slopes have a forest cover, while the lower belts support some cultivation mainly of rice. Near Ajra, the river receives a major stream and after a heavily meandering course via Mahagaon and Gadhinglaj, the river passes out of this district just a little upstream of Sankeshwar, and finally after a course of 20 miles, joins the Ghataprabha near Ingli.

Krishna.

Though the *Krishna* controls the drainage regime of the Kolhapur rivers, its influence is more indirect than direct. Directly, it is mostly limited to its banks of which the left bank for a stretch of about forty miles lies in this district. From its junction with the Varna where the Kolhapur boundary continues from the Varna side, the river flows through a rich black soil plain. The nature of the relief and the river regime have produced three tracts of contrast. Near the watercourse proper are the terraced banks, (*the malais*), which favour a variety of cultivation. Outside this strip, there is a wide stretch of flood plain, much gullied, yet agriculturally valuable

for Jowar, Cotton and other dry crops; outside the flood plain limits the land merges, sometimes gradually and sometimes abruptly, into the dry and barren areas (*the mals*) given only to poor cultivation and rough grazing. Downstream near Udgaon the river is crossed by the Miraj-Kolhapur railway line and also by a road which links up Kolhapur with Miraj and Sangli. Below Udgaon the river takes a wide semi-circular sweep till it is joined by the Panchaganga near Narsobawadi. Below this traditionally sacred confluence, the river continues its entrenched and meandering course, and is in the process of straightening it from Alas to a point near Chandur, but in this reach the Kolhapur limits touch the river only a few points.

VEGETATION.

NATURAL VEGETATION as such hardly seems to exist in the district since much of the area of the district has been brought under cultivation and that which is not technically under forests and grasslands, has been considerably destroyed Elements of natural vegetation appear to be of three types: The truly monsoonal forests with such trees as *Hirda, Ain, Nana* and various kinds of cassias and teak occur in the rainier parts of the west; secondly, a degenerate form of the monsoonal type occurs more as scrub with stunted teak, khair and bamboo in the hilly tracks in the middle; thirdly, a savanla type of vegetation consisting of grass and thorny shrubs notably acacias appears in the drier eastern parts. As has been said already, much of the natural vegetation has been modified by man and there has been an evident decrease of monsoonal vegetation cover and an increase in grass land areas as a result of the rapid destruction of forests. It appears that riverine meadows which were an important feature of the agricultural economy during the last century have also been vanishing with the increase in cultivated area in the upper regions of almost all the valleys of the district.

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FROM A REGIONAL POINT OF VIEW the district shows interesting variations in its landscapes and economic development.

The Sahyadrian Watershed Region

In the west lies the Sahyadrian watershed—a region of about 10 to 15 miles wide and running throughout the length of the Sahyadris lying in this district from the Malkapur tract in the north to Samangad in the south. The very edge of this long belt consists of the precipitous scarps of the Sahyadries that is marked by occasional terraces, steep basaltic walls and magnificent amphitheatres through which the monsoonal waters of innumerable streams are drained away to the Arabian sea. This scarp acts both as a natural and administrative division boundary to the newly formed district of Kolhapur. The upper heights on the scarp notably wherever there are local isolated features, is marked by several important forts as, for example, Bavda and Vishalgad. These forts are mostly detached outliers of the plateau and owing to their isolated and commanding position have played an important

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF KOLHAPUR. The Sahyadrian Watershed Region.

part in history. It is interesting to notice that below or in the vicinity of each of these forts is a small gap-town situated along with Ghat routes. Bavda, for example, controls the route from Kolhapur to Kharepatan. This region of the Sahyadrian water-shed is thinly populated, people living in small hamlets and depending for their livelihood partly on agriculture but mostly on forest occupations. Quite a large area is under forest cover and is exploited under Governmental supervision. Human attention naturally is directed along the upper tracts of the main valleys, as for example, along the valley leading to the Ambaghat, the Kumbhi valley, the Bhogawati and the Vedaganga.

East of this Sahyadrian watershed the landscape consists of two striking contrasts, the residual hill ranges separated by the intermediate valleys.

The residual hill ranges.

From the Sahyadrian watershed several hill ranges run to the east and are separated by intermediate valleys. These are developed on the Deccan lavas and form erosional remnants having a characteristic landscape summit plateaus with rounded peaks above and structural benches below. The Panhala-Alta range is the northernmost one of the district. Emerging from the Vishalgad area of the Sahyadrian watershed it runs first south-eastwards and then almost due east. The economic development of this range is marked by forests in the western part which through a transition of scrub develop extensive grass lands towards the east. On the whole this is a thinly populated region. Panhala (3,127 ft.) is a famous historical fort and a good hill station. Pavangad is yet another fort in the vicinity. Right across the saddle is situated the famous Jyotiba temple. Villages on the plateau are few but at the junction of the hills and the valleys below a string of hamlets has made its appearance as for example, Pishvi, Borivade, Padali on the north and Kotoli, Porle, Nagaon and Alta in the south. The other hill ranges too participate in this general regional characteristic of the Panhala range. These are from north to south, the Vaghajai range separating the Kumbhi valley from Kasari, the Pal Donger and its minor ridges which separate the Kumbhi from the Tulsi river valley, the Phonda-Sangaon range which separates Bhogawati from the Dudhaganga, the Kagal range separating the Dudhaganga from the Vedaganga, and the Bhudargad group of ranges which separates the Vedaganga from the Ghatprabha valley. In all these ranges the monsoonal forest cover is gradually replaced towards the east by grasslands. Population is thin and is settled at selected localities. The typical Deccan lava topography is a characteristic feature of all these ranges.

River Valleys.

A succession of river valleys draining the land towards the east characterises the land-scape of the district from the Varna

valley in the north to the upper tributaries of the Ghatprabha in the south. From the human point of view these are the most important areas of the district. Well cultivated and densely peopled, Malkapur, Kasba, Sarud and Kodoli are more important villages of the Varna valley. In the Kasari valley Gajapur, Bhogaon and Kasar are important villages. Sangrul situated at the spur of the Pal Donger (or Tymzai Range) is a market village in the Kumbhi valley. In the upper reaches of the Kumbhi, Kale and Bawada are large sized villages. The road from Kolhapur connects these places and through a Ghat road it joins Kharepatan. Bid and Koge are important villages of the confluence plain of the Kumbhi, Tulsi and Bhogawati rivers. The Bhogawati valley is much more well developed economically. A road from Kolhapur to Malvan passes through this valley via Phonda Ghat and connects several large sized villages live Vashi, Rashiwade and Radhanagari. Development of hydro-electricity from the Radhanagari tank and irrigation by means of bunds on the Bhogawati river have brought in a greater prosperity to this valley through sugar-cane cultivation. East of Prayag which marks the confluence of the Kasari and Bhogawati, lies the Panchaganga valley proper. This is a region of rich agriculture and population. A substantial area is utilized for sugar-cane. East of Kolhapur several commercially important crops are raised. Sugar-cane continues to dominate the banks of the river. A little in the interior it is succeeded by tobacco, cotton, millets and wheat. Betel leaf gardens flourish wherever well irrigation is possible. Pulses and spice crops play an important secondary role. Large sized nucleated village are typical of this region. Hatkanangale, Shirol and Ichalkaranji are local markets and taluka towns. Ichalkaranji is well-known for its handloom products. Narsobawadi situated at the junction of the Panchaganga with the Krishna, is a place of great sanctity. Jaisingpur is a small but flourishing town that specialises in tobacco marketing. But the city of Kolhapur through its historical tradition, administrative and commercial importance dominates the economy of the entire district. The Phonda-Sangaon range separates the Bhogawati from the Dudhaganga valley. As compared with the northern valleys the valley of the Dudhaganga river is wider and also correspondingly well-developed. Its upper regions are partly wooded and partly rice-growing areas. Towards Kagal cultivation of millets and several other crops increases. The agricultural development of this valley is well reflected in the numerous large sized villages like Valve, Solankur and Kagal. Kagal is a town of local importance situated on the Poona-Bangalore trunk road. The Kolhapur limits of the Dudhaganga valley terminate east of Kagal. A small hill range separates the Dudhaganga from the upper reaches of the Vedaganga. Gargoti and Murgud are two important market villages. Gargoti is connected with Kolhapur by a good metalled road across the Vedaganga hilly range and Murgud lies on the Nippani-Radhanagari Road. The southern most part of the district is generally hilly and is

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River Valleys.

marked by several small valleys draining the area eastwards mainly to the Ghatprabha river. In one of the tributary valleys of the Vedaganga is situated the minor township of Kapshi. Ajra, Mahagaon and Gadhinglaj are small sized towns lying on the Sankeshwar-Savantwadi road which passes through the upper Hiranyakeshi river. Economic development of these valleys is very much similar to that of the Dudhaganga and Vedaganga basins.

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TWO DISTINCT TRENDS IN THE HILL RANGES are seen in the district. One runs roughly north-south, along the main range of the Western Ghats presenting wild and picturesque hill slopes and valleys. The other one comprises the narrow broken-crested ridges and flat topped masses stretching eastwards and merging gradually into the plains in the east. The rivers Hiranyakeshi, Vedganga, Dudhganga, Bhogvati and Panchganga drain the area towards east.

The geological formations met with. in the descending order of their antiquity, are as follows:—

Soil and Laterite	... Recent and Sub-Recent.
Deccan trap	... Lower Eocene.
Lower Kaladgi Series	... Cuddapah.
Granite-gneiss Dharwars	... Archæan.

The Dharwar phyllites and amphibolities intruded by granite-gneiss are the oldest rocks found as small inlairs in this district. Phyllites and amphibolities are noticed near Ajra. The phyllites are completely weathered and have formed variegated clays. The amphibolities are dark, markedly schistose and break into thin slabs. Granite-gneiss crops out as four small inlairs along the junction of the Kaladgis and the Deccan trap near Hadalge, Nesri, Tarewadi and Chandewadi. It shows diversity of texture from a fine grained to a rather course porphyritic type. A number of basic inclusions are noticed in the granite-gneiss.

The Lower Kaladgi series, next in the chronological order, rest unconformably over the Dharwars and the granite-gneiss. It consists of conglomerates, compact to gritty quartzites with

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The earliest reference to the geology of this district is by R. Bruce Foote, entitled "The Geological Features of the South Mahratta Country and adjacent districts," published in *Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XII. Pt. I, 1876. C. S. Fox has given an account of the bauxite deposits of the district under the heading, "The Bauxite and Aluminous Laterite Occurrences of India," in *Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XLIX, Pt. I, 1923. A more comprehensive idea of the geology of the district is furnished by H. C. Jones under the caption of "Mineral Resources of Kolhapur State," published in *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. LIV., Pt. 4, 1923. Recently K. C. Channabasappa re-examined the bauxite deposits of the district and his observations are recorded in an unpublished report (1949). A reference to the utilisation of the deposits is contained in B. C. Roy's paper entitled "A note on the utilisation of Belgaum and Kolhapur bauxites," in Indian Minerals, Vol. IV, No. 2, April, 1950.

*The section on Geology is prepared by Shri Y. S. Sahasrabudhe of the Geological Survey of India.

minor ferruginous bands and stains, variegated and sandy shales and re-crystallised sandstones. The strata are almost horizontally disposed, but gentle dips of 8 to 10 degrees towards N. to N.N.W. are also noticed. The Kaladgi rocks are well bedded, the thickness of the individual beds varying from a few inches to 20 feet or more. They show frequent changes of the grade of the material throughout the formation. Conglomerates occur at various levels. Fine to coarse grained quartzites frequently alternate. Pebbles are scattered both in the sandstones and quartzites. The outcrops are seen along the V-shaped western margin of the main Kaladgi basin near Hadalge, Nesri and Watangi in the Ghatprabha river valley. They form small inlairs in the valleys of Vedganga, Dudhganga and Hiranyakeshi rivers.

An oval-shaped inlair of the Lower Kaladgis is noticed in the Hiranyakeshi river valley. It extends from north of Ajra in the west to Mahagaon in the east and covers an extensive area. The rocks are represented by quartzites and shales, mostly dipping north-west, at low angles. They are best exposed in the row of hills which runs east-south-east near Sulgaon on the bank of the Hiranyakeshi river. The quartzites and shales form a series of beds several hundred feet thick, although both top and bottom of the Kaladgis are hidden under the trap. The prolonged denudation of the trap has also given rise to a small inlair near Madilge 4 miles north of Ajra. Five inlairs are noticed in the Vedganga valley. Two of them are near Shengaon and Sheloli and cover an area of about two and five square miles respectively. The inlair near the Shengaon is an elongated hill rising about 400 feet above the plains. The Sheloli inlair comprises two hills about 450 feet in height and is separated by the Vedganga river. The rocks are re-crystallised sandstones and quartzites with ferruginous stains with a dip towards east and south and south-east at 8-10 degrees. The other three inlairs, near Sonarwadi, Salpewadi and Hanabarwadi represent intermittent exposures along the eastern flanks of the great ridge of the Deccan trap, south-east of Gargotti. Another small inlair of the same rocks occurs in an adjacent valley three miles west of Shengaon near Phaya. The rocks attain a thickness of about 400-500 feet. The two inlairs near Waki and Aini along the Dudhganga valley cover an area of about ten and three square miles, respectively. The eastern boundary of the Waki inlair runs about six miles along the western flanks of the great ridge from Ghothana in the south to Sutarwadi in the north and forms a low-lying plateau north of Waki The quartzites and sandstones are whitish, drab or pinkish in colour and fine grained in texture. They dip at 8-10 degrees in different directions but south-easterly dip being the most common. The continuation of the same rocks further north of Waki inlair forms the Ani inlair. The beds here dip at comparatively low angles, varying from 7-10 degrees, and attain a thickness of

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about 300 feet from the level of the river. The eastern boundary runs along the western flanks of the ridge near Ani and Alegaon, while the western boundary is along the eastern slopes of the ridge near Lingewadi and Panori.

The Deccan trap formation overlies the Kaladgi beds and is seen spread over almost the entire district. It occurs in the form of bedded flows, several thousand feet in total thickness. The greatest thickness of the trap within the south Kolhapur area may roughly be estimated at 2,000 to 2,500 feet. The individual flows vary in thickness from a few feet up to 100 feet or more, the average thickness being about 40 to 50 feet. They are seen to dip at a very low angle generally to the north-east while it changes to low westerly dip in the Konkan. A great part of the lava-beds must have been subjected to large scale erosion along the river valleys, exposing the underlying Kaladgi and Dharwar group of rocks. Because of their tendency to form flat-topped plateaus and terraced features, they are described as "traps". They are dominantly basaltic in composition and are equivalent to the "plateau basalts". The rock is dark grey to greenish-grey in colour, although brownish to purplish tints are also met with. The specific gravity is 2·9 on an average.

The Deccan trap exhibits characteristic spheroidal weathering and forms rounded boulders. These boulders are generally seen scattered along the foot-hills of the hilly terrain throughout the whole district. Prismatic or columner jointing is also a common feature. Generally two types, *viz.*, vesicular and non-vesicular traps are noticed. The vesicular or amygdular types are comparatively soft. The non-vesicular types are hard and compact. Generally in the trappean country, fluviatile and lacustrine deposits are formed during the interval between the successive lava flows. These deposits are known as the inter-trappean beds and consist of sandstones, shales, clays and pyroclastic materials.

Petrologically, the Deccan trap consists of plagioclase (labradorite), enstatite-augite, and small amounts of titaniferous iron-ore and glass. Olivine is also found at times. In the amygdular variety, the vesicles are partly or completely filled with secondly minerals like zeolite, calcite and crystalline and amorphous quartz (rock crystal, chalcedony, agate, jasper, etc.).

The lava beds at the plateau tops are capped by laterite, a product of weathering. Laterite is usually noticed at altitudes of 3,000 feet or more throughout district. The thickness of the laterite, forming vertical cliffs or scarps, usually varies between 20 and 100 feet. It is a kind of scoriaceous and variegated clayey rock, with characteristic red and brown colour, and is composed essentially of hydrated oxides of alumina and iron. Rich aluminous varieties of laterite known as bauxite occur as irregular pockets or layers.

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Two types of soils are noticed. Alteration of the trap gives rise to a deep brown, red or black-soil, covering a large area of the district. The Kaladgi sandstones and quartzites on the other hand yield a reddish sandy soil particularly noticed in the southern portion of the district.

Bauxite.

This is the chief mineral of economic value in the district. It occurs in large quantities as laterite cappings in the hills along the western margin of the district. Some of the occurrences are described below.

Radhanagari deposits.—The largest deposits are seen about 4 miles north of Radhanagari, on Kolhapur-Phonda-Ghat road, and are accessible by a foot-path from Radhanagari dam site. The plateau tops here show a capping of 60-80 feet of laterite. The spur of the hill culminating in peak Δ 3244, north-west of Radhanagari, is capped by aluminous laterite. The southern slopes are covered by laterite debries with some bauxite. as seen in the *nala* sections near Mosalavadi. The high ground in the middle of the triangular plateau Δ 3244 is capped with 1-2 feet of ferruginous laterite underlain by massive bauxite varying in thickness from 5-13 feet. It is estimated that about 10,80,000 tons of bauxite may be available in addition to a few thousand tons of float ore. The chemical analyses of a number of samples gave the following range in composition:—

SiO_2—Silicon di Oxide.

Al_2O^3—Aluminium Oxide.

Fe_2O^3—Ferrous Oxide.

MgO—Magnessium Oxide.

CaO—Calcium Oxide.

TiO^2—Titanium di Oxide.

		Per cent.
SiO_2	.. ...	0·04— 0·38
Al_2O_3	... ...	53·51—59·50
Fe_2O^3	... ...	06·20—13·20
MgO	.. .	nil.
CaO	... ...	nil.
TiO_2	... ...	4·93— 6·90

The plateau attaining a maximum height of Δ 3252 west of hill Δ 3244, is also capped by laterite and contains grey bauxite about 3½ feet in thickness. The two isolated hillocks and the plateau (Δ 3218) north of hill Δ 3244 show the patchy development of bauxite. About 96,300 tons of bauxite may be expected

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Bauxite.

from these plateaus. The samples show the following range in composition: —

		Per cent.
SiO_2	.. ...	0·04— 0·06
Al_2O^3	.. ...	53·20—57·30
Fe_2O^3	... ..	6·24—13·10
MgO	... ...	*trace.*
CaO	.. ..	*trace.*
TiO_2	... ...	5·02— 5·30

Panhala Fort deposits.—These are found about 12 miles north-west of Kolhapur. Capping the plateau there is a 30-40 feet thick laterite. It is only in the shallow valley below Bagh Darwaja, north of Shivaji's tower, kaolin and pisolitic bauxite are noticed. The quality seems to be good but the quantity is poor.

Bhudargarh deposits.—There is a series of laterite capped hillocks, 4 miles south of Gargotti, on the Kadgaon-Nipani road. The laterite is highly ferruginous, approaching a low grade iron-ore. The hillocks are generally capped by a 30-40 feet thick ferruginous laterite containing a few bouldery pockets of grey and buff coloured bauxite.

Amboli-Ghat deposits.—Two parallel ridges, situated at the tri-junction of Kolhapur-Belgaum and Sawantwadi. contain laterite 50-100 feet thick, with a thin capping of bauxite at the top. The slopes of the ridge are sometimes strewn with float ore. Two important float ore deposits are confined to the north and north-west of the western ridge. the average thickness being 2 feet. The western ridge is capped by a more massive bauxite, having its thicker side facing the Hiranyakeshi valley. The eastern ridge, consisting of less massive ore, has its thicker side facing the Ghatprabha valley. The laterite on both the ridges in general, is aluminous, with lens-shaped patches of grey bauxite of good quality. The massive cliff of the western ridge shows several such patches, along the length of the ridge. It is estimated that about 44,21,340 tons of bauxite will be available in the western ridge and about 9,80,100 tons on the eastern ridge. The float ore may be of the order of 2,05,000 tons. The analyses of samples gave the following range in composition: —

		Per cent.
SiO_2	.. ..	0·24—11·00
Al_2O^3	... ...	48·99—62·18
Fe_2O^3	... ...	3·27—13·17
MgO	... ..	*trace.*
CaO	... ..	*trace.*
TiO_2	... ..	6·73—8·42

Plateau West of Dhangarvadi.—The extensive plateau culminating in peak Δ 3335, approximately striking N.W.-S.E. overlooks the main road from Kolhapur to Ratnagiri *via.* Amba Pass. The rim of this plateau is bounded by lofty scarps on all sides. Boulders of good quality bauxite are seen in abundance on the northern slope, while they are comparatively rare on the southern and western slopes. The scarp sections south and west of Dhangarwadi show 12-15 feet of massive bauxite, whereas in the northern cliff it has a thickness of 36 feet. The quantity of bauxite on the south-eastern portion of the plateau (Δ 3335) is of the order of 59,40,000 tons. In addition about 5,00,000 tons of float ore are available on the northern slopes of the hill Δ 3335. Samples analysed yielded the following range in composition:—

	Per cent.
SiO_2 ...	0·56— 3·48
Al_2O_3 .	51·23—56·22
Fe_2O_3 ...	7·98—12·37
MgO ...	*trace.*
CaO ...	*trace.*
TiO_2 ...	4·40— 6·43

Rangevadi deposit.—A group of discontinuous plateaus south of Rangevadi are bounded by scarps, attaining a maximum height of 40 feet at the north-eastern corner. The boulders of aluminous laterite seen at the top gradually improves in quality from west to east. The scarp sections at the south-western corner show 12 to 15 feet of massive bauxite passing down to vermicular laterite, while the scarp sections due south of Kadakawadi, where the plateau narrows down to a width of 50 yards expose 2 to 3 feet of limonitic material underlain by 23 feet of massive bauxite. It is estimated that about 32,40,000 tons of bauxite would be available. The samples analysed gave the following range in composition:—

	Per cent.
SiO_2 .	0·14— 0·30
Al_2O_3 ..	53·38—56·72
Fe_2O_3 ..	7·98—11 17
MgO .	*trace.*
CaO ...	*trace*
TiO_2 ...	4·25— 5·10

Ridge West of Nesari.—This ridge which runs along the Belgaum-Kolhapur boundary, 6 miles west of Nesari, has a capping of 40-60 feet of laterite. The examination of scarp sections and the slopes indicates only sporadic patches of massive bauxite.

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Bauxite.

Gargotti deposits.—The two small hillocks near hill Δ 3239, west of Gargotti are capped with aluminous laterite approaching bauxite in composition. Boulders of good grey bauxite are strewn near the village Dhangarvadi. The thickness of the bauxite varies from 8 to 10 feet and the quantity available is approximately 5,40,000 tons. The samples analysed yielded the following range in compositions:—

			Per cent.
SiO_2	..	...	0·64— 2·00
Al_2O^3	...	...	59·77—60·01
Fe_2O^3	...	...	01·74—02·61
MgO	...	...	*trace.*
CaO	...	...	*trace.*
TiO_2	...	..	8·00— 8·88

Waki deposits.—The peak Δ 3372, four miles south-west of Waki, is capped with aluminous laterite, about 60-80 feet in thickness. The slopes and sides of this hill are strewn with bounders and nodules of ferruginous laterite and on the western margin from south to north, grey bauxite of good quality is seen on the top. The scarp sections at the western side show 4-8 feet of massive bauxite passing downwards into laterite. The quantity of ore is estimated at 13,50,000 tons. A sample collected at the eastern margin analysed as follows:—

			Per cent.
SiO_2	...	...	0·08
Al_2O^3	...	...	61·87
Fe_2O^3	...	...	1·10
TiO_2	...	...	6·95

Udgeri deposits.—One of the best deposits occurs on the plateau Δ 3396, about half a mile north-west of Udgeri. The main plateau consists of a bedded basalt with a capping of 60-80 feet of laterite. The southern slopes, especially above Udgeri, are largely covered with bounders of bauxite, while they are rare on the northern slopes. Practically the whole of the north-western part of the plateau consists of good quality bauxite and in contrast the south-eastern portion does not appear to be so rich. Proceeding along the foot-path from Udgeri towards north, the scarp section sat the southern side show 15 feet of massive bauxite. The cliffs near Δ 3396 show 22 feet of grey coloured bauxite. The scarp sections north of the tank at the north-western corner of the plateau show 2 feet of laterite capping a 32-foot of massive grey bauxite. The estimated reserves in the above locality are about 35,64,000 tons

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Bauxite.

of bauxite. Samples analysed gave the following range in composition: —

			Per cent.
SiO_2	...	...	0·22— 0·42
Al_2O^3	...	...	53·62—59·60
Fe_2O^3	...	...	2·80—11·07
CaO	...	...	*trace.*
MgO	...	...	*trace.*
TiO_2	...	...	4·15— 5·71

Total Reserves.—Summing up the probable reserves of the more aluminuous laterite from all the above deposits are of the order of 2,10,00,000 tons, out of which about 10 per cent. can be considered to be good quality ore.

The deposits are located on the plateau tops and offer some difficulty in transporting the ore. it can be brought to the foot-hills by gravity or alternatively by a system of aerial ropeways for haulage could be arranged to reach the ore to the main high-way of the district such as Phonda Ghat road, Gargotti road and Ajra-Amboli Ghat road, all of which are within 5 miles from the deposits. Although there appears to be no serious difficulty for transporting the ore, the charges may be rather high. But with improved transport facilities and cheap power being made available the commercial exploitation of the bauxite deposits in Kolhapur should become possible.

Building Materials

The district is well endowed with building stones. Hard, compact, fine to medium grained Kaladgi sandstones and quartzites are quarried for construction materials near Nesri, Harur, Gajargaon, Ajra and Gargoti. They are also worked for road metal near Harali Budrukh and Harali Khurd. Some of the harder varieties of Deccan trap are extremely good for building purposes and are worked in the Jotiba hill quarries. The rock is fine grained, hard, compact, bluish-grey and can be traced up to the Panhala fort and along the range for many miles. It is also quarried near Ajra, Gandhinglaj, Gargotti, Kagal etc.

Laterite.—Laterite is abundant and has been largely used for walls and buildings in many of the old forts and is still used in many of the villages in the district. Irregular nodules of *kankar* occur in the soil, especially in the eastern part of the district, and is locally used for lime-burning.

Copper.—Traces of thin films of metallic copper are reported in some excavations in the trap near Kolhapur and also in a railway cutting 11½ miles from Kolhapur. These are of academic importance only.

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CHAPTER 1.
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Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Building Materials.

Gypsum.—Some irregular nodules of fibrous gypsum found in red clay are reported near Tambiyadi. This has no economic value.

Iron.—Fair quality iron-ore occurs in small quantities in the laterite throughout the district but is useless at present as a source of raw material for smelting.

Kaolin.—Small quantities of inferior type of kaolin are noticed near Panhalla fort, Gudalkop, Gadhinglaj and Budargarh fort, but these occurrences are not important economically.

WATER SUPPLY.

The district may be divided into three belts as regards its water supply, *viz.*, the hilly and rugged country forming the Western Ghats towards west, the narrow broken-crested ridges stretching eastwards in the central portion, and the plains towards east. The hilly country in the west receives the maximum rain-fall of the district and the ground water is mostly tapped from percolation wells and mountain springs. In the Central portion the water supply is partly from springs and wells, the main source being the five perennial rivers. The plains have copious surface and underground water supply and may be said to be one of the best irrigated lands of the State.

CLIMATE.

THE CLIMATE OF THE KOLHAPUR PLAIN is temperate and similar to the other districts of Bombay Deccan adjoining the ghats. In the western part of Kolhapur near the Sahyadris it is always cooler than that in the eastern part which is liable to hot winds during April and May. The nights over the whole district are generally cool due to the influence of the sea breezes which set in during the afternoons and continue till late in the evening.

The year in respect of Kolhapur district may be divided into three periods as follows:—hot weather period from March to May; rainy period from June to October; and cold weather period from November to February.

There is only one observatory in the district located at Kolhapur, which maintains temperature and related meteorological records. The data available in another observatory in the neighbourhood at Miraj have also been utilised in describing the climate of the district. Table 1 gives the mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures and relative humidity for the city of Kolhapur based on available data (1949-58).

Hot Weather Period
(March to May)

There is a rapid rise in temperature in March, reaching the maximum in April. April is the hottest month of the year, with an mean maximum temperature of 99°F. The corresponding figures for March and May are 96°F. and 95°F. respectively. Daily maximum temperatures exceeding 100°F.

CHAPTER 1. Physical Features. CLIMATE. Hot Weather Period (March to May).

are fairly frequent in April. On an average there are 12 such days. The highest temperature recorded at Kolhapur during the last decade is 107°F. Temperatures exceeding 110°F. are unlikely in this district. The mean daily maximum temperature varies from 66°F. to 72°F. The diurnal variation of temperature is large and the mean value ranges from 30·7°F. in March to 22·7°F in May.

On individual days a range of 35°F. in March is not uncommon. The mean relative humidity in (March to May) this period is 65 per cent. in the morning and 35 to 40 per cent. in the evening. Low values of humidity of the order of 15 to 20 per cent. occur in these months in the afternoon. The prevailing wind direction is mainly westerly though in the afternoons of March and April, easterly winds occur on about 50 per cent. of the days. The temperature is high during the day but the evenings are cooled by sea-breezes and the nights are not oppressive.

This is also a season of thunderstorm. At Kolhapur, one day in every three or four days in April and May, is a day of thunder. The rainfall in this season is accompanied by thunderstorms and it is about 1″ in April and 1½″ in May. This period accounts for about 10 per cent. of the total annual rainfall.

Wet Weather Period. (June to October).

The normal period of the onset of the South-West monsoon in the district is the first week of June. With the onset of the monsoon there is a rapid fall in the day temperatures and conditions of near uniformity over wide areas are reached in the months of July and August. The mean daily maximum temperature for July and August is 79°F. Towards the end of September temperatures again begin to rise. The moisture content of the atmosphere in this season is very high and the air is nearly saturated on several days. The mean relative humidity for June to September is 87 per cent. in the morning and 77 per cent. in the evening. The direction of winds during this period is mainly westerly. There is a complete change-over in October when the winds are mainly from North-East to East. The annual rainfall varies widely in the district from 20″ in the North-East to 250″ in the west. This is the main rainy-season. A fuller account of rainfall is given in tables No. 2 and No. 3.

Winter (November to February).

Although day temperature remains higher than in the monsoon, the mean minimum temperature is the lowest and it ranges from 58° to 61°F. December and January are the coldest months of the year. The district lies in an area where the lowest temperature on individual days may go down to 45°F. Dry wind blasts during the period and the daily range of temperature is rather large. The mean daily range of

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
CLIMATE.
Winter.
(November to February).

temperature in December and January is 28°F. On individual days it may be even 35°F. The mean relative humidity for the season at Kolhapur is 63 per cent. in the morning and 33 per cent. in the evening. Low humidities less than 20 per cent. are not infrequent. Rainfall in November is about 1½" to 2". The rest of the period is practically dry.

RAINFALL.

Table 3 gives the average monthly and annual rainfall of eight rain recording stations in the district. Six of them are based on data of about 50 years (1901 to 1950) and two on about 17 years (1934 to 1950).

The average annual rainfall in the district varies widely from about 20" in Kurundwad-Shirol area in the north-east to over 240" in Gaganbavada area near Sahyadri in the west. Kurundwad has the lowest annual average of 19" whereas Gaganbavada gets 244". The isohyets (line of equal rainfall) practically runs from north to south. About three-fourths of the district receives more than 40" annually.

The district gets rain from the south-west as well as the north-east monsoons. Throughout the district rain falls from May to November. However, the main rainy-season is from June to October. It may be observed that during May and November rainfall over the whole district is nearly uniform, being about 1½" to 2". The normal period of the onset of the south-west monsoon is the first week of June. The portions to the west of Ratnagiri-Gaganbavada receive 90 to 95 per cent. of the annual rainfall in the months of June to September from the south-west monsoon winds. The percentage decreases in the north-west near Kurundwad to about 60 per cent. of the annual. If October is also considered, June to October accounts for over 80 per cent. of the annual rainfall in the district and for as much as 98 per cent. in the extreme west. The months of October to December account for 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. of the annual in the eastern portions of the district.

July is the month of maximum rainfall throughout the district. Thirty-five per cent. to 40 per cent of the annual rainfall is received in this month over a good portion of the district.

Table 4 gives the frequency distribution of annual rainfall. The highest and lowest values in a fifty-year period have not exceed twice or fallen to less than 50 per cent. of the average.

Gaganbavada near the Sahyadris recorded 323" in 1908 while Kurundwad in the north-east got less than 10" in 1905. The extreme north-eastern part is a semi-arid area with high variability of annual rainfall. 1905 was generally a year of low rainfall for the whole district.

TABLE No. 1.

TABLE SHOWING MEAN DAILY MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURES AND HUMIDITY FOR THE CITY OF KOLHAPUR.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest	Lowest.
Mean daily Maximum temperature (°F) ..	86·9	89·9	96·4	93·7	94·9	86·1	79·4	79·3	82·9	86·4	86·6	85·8	87·8	107	48
Mean daily Minimum temperature (°F) ..	58·5	60·6	65·7	70·5	72·2	71·7	70·0	69·5	68·8	68	51·3	58·2	66·3		
Mean Temperature	72·7	75·3	81·1	84·6	83·5	78·9	74·7	74·4	75·9	77·2	74·0	72·0	77·1		
Mean Range	28·4	29·3	30·7	28·2	22·7	14·4	9·4	9·8	14·1	18·4	35·3	27·6	21·5		
Mean Relative Humidity at 0830 IST hrs. (per cent.)	61	57	57	64	72	82	89	90	87	82	65	61			
Mean Relative Humidity at 1730 IST hrs. (per cent.).	27	23	26	38	50	70	83	82	73	61	37	30			

(The means are based on data for the years 1949 to 1958).

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
RAINFALL.

TABLE

PERCENTAGE OF WIND FREQUENCIES BASED

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
08-30 Hrs. I.S.T.						
Calm.	52·9	52·8	43·2	22·0	4·5	2·0
N ..	00	00	00	0·7	0·6	00
NE ..	14·8	14·8	7·7	8·7	1·3	0·7
E ..	25·2	19·0	13·5	8·0	3·2	1·3
SE ..	0·6	1·4	2·6	1·3	0·6	00
S ..	1·3	00	1·3	0·7	1·9	0·7
SW ..	1·3	4·9	3·2	2·0	4·5	13·3
W ..	3·9	5·6	25·8	48·7	74·2	76·0
NW ..	00	1·4	2·6	7·3	9·0	6·0
VAR ..	00	00	00	0·7	00	00
11-30 Hrs. I.S.T.						
Calm. ..	8·4	11·3	8·4	15·3	1·3	1·3
N ..	1·9	2·1	5·2	11·3	3·9	0·7
NE ..	20·0	23·9	29·6	24·7	7·7	00
E ..	40·6	31·0	26·5	16·0	3·2	00
SE ..	15·5	16·9	6·5	3·3	1·3	00
S ..	8·4	7·0	6·5	0·7	1·3	1·3
SW ..	0·6	2·8	2·6	2·7	5·2	14·0
W ..	3·9	3·5	9·0	15·3	56·1	76·7
NW ..	0·6	0·7	5·8	10·7	20·0	6·0
VAR ..	00	0·7	00	00	00	00
17-30 Hrs. I.S.T.						
Calm. ..	11·0	9·9	7·7	2·7	0·6	00
N ..	0·6	1·4	0·6	3·3	00	00
NE ..	18·7	12·7	7·7	4·7	00	00
E ..	29·0	28·1	9·7	4·0	1·3	00
SE ..	6·5	2·8	2·6	3·3	00	00
S ..	1·9	2·1	1·3	2·7	2·6	0·7
SW ..	3·2	7·0	3·9	7·3	6·5	9·3
W ..	23·9	31·7	56·1	64·0	80·0	88·0
NW ..	5·2	5·6	10·3	7·3	9·0	2·0
VAR ..	00	0·7	00	0·7	00	00

No. 2.

ON 5-YEAR DATA (1952-57).

July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
6·5	1·9	11·3	26·5	35·3	29·7
00	00	1·3	1·9	0·7	00
00	00	1·3	29·0	22·0	17·4
00	00	1·3	20·0	38·0	48·4
00	00	00	1·3	1·3	2·6
00	00	00	1·3	0·7	0·6
7·7	5·8	2·7	1·3	00	00
83·2	87·1	74·0	16·1	2·0	1·3
2·6	5·2	8·0	1·9	00	00
00	00	00	00	00	00
0·6	00	6·7	6·5	4·0	5·2
00	00	0·7	6·5	0·7	0·6
00	00	4·0	27·1	19·3	9·7
00	00	3·3	38·7	32·7	63·2
0·6	00	00	7·1	12·0	17·4
00	00	00	1·9	2·0	2·6
7·1	3·2	2·0	2·6	00	00
86·5	91·6	68·7	7·1	00	1·3
5·2	5·2	14·7	2·6	00	00
00	00	00	00	00	00
00	00	0·7	9·0	12·7	6·5
00	00	0·7	3·9	1·3	2·6
00	00	0·7	20·6	38·0	33·4
00	00	0·7	18·1	34·9	41·9
00	00	00	4·5	3·3	5·2
00	00	00	2·6	00	00
5·2	3·9	7·3	5·2	00	1·9
91·0	89·0	83·3	30·3	8·7	5·8
3·9	7·1	6·7	7·7	2·0	2·6
00	00	00	00	00	00

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
RAINFALL.

TABLE

MEAN RAINFALL DATA IN KOLHAPUR

Station.	No. of years.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
Shirol ..	49/50 ..	0·14	0·10	0·20	0·86	1·93	2·97
Kolhapur ..	50 ..	0·17	0·02	0·24	1·06	1·82	5·51
Gaganbavada ..	50 ..	0·10	0·02	0·13	0·68	2·13	47·12
Kapshi ..	16 ..	0·13	0	0·40	1·43	1·75	4·62
Gargotti ..	50 ..	0·10	0·04	0·24	1·13	1·55	9·62
Radhanagari ..	10/17 ..	0·62	0·02	0·19	1·03	1·51	24·42
Gadhinglaj ..	49/50 ..	0·10	0·05	0·47	1·59	2·55	5·50
Kurundwad ..	48 ..	0·15	0·03	0·22	0·81	1·46	2·48

No. 3.

DISTRICT (IN INCHES).

July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
4·37	3·01	4·05	3·45	1·04	0·27	23·12
13·32	7·15	4·00	4·08	1·60	0·22	39·21
68·07	62·82	31·47	9·70	2·11	0·25	243·97
12·99	6·58	3·61	4·20	1·09	0·37	37·27
24·36	12·52	4·94	4·42	1·51	0·29	60·71
69·98	34·92	11·35	5·06	1·55	0·20	151·31
11·34	6·20	3·99	4·48	1·50	0·32	38·18
3·84	2·38	3·43	2·79	1·30	0·22	19·17

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
RAINFALL.

TABLE-

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL RAINFALL

	Interval									
	0.0 10	10–1 15	15–1 20	20–1 25	25–1 30	30–1 35	35–1 40	40–1 45	45–1 50	50–1 55
Shirol ..		3	11	20	8	4	3			
Kolhapur ..				4	3	7	15	11	3	5
Gargoti ..							2	3	1	8
Kurundwad .	1	6	26	9	3	2	1			
Gadhinglaj ..				2	2	16	9	11	5	2
Gaganbavada.				126 150 2	151 175 1		176 200 4	201 225 8	226 250 10	257 275 11

No. 4.

(INCHES) IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

(Inches) 55–100	60–65	65–70	70–75	75–80	80–85	105–110	Mean.	Highest.	Lowest.
							23·12	37·63 1932	10·11 1920
1			1				39·21	72·36 1914	20·51 1905
11	11	5	3	2	3	1	60·71	106·70 1914	35·06 1905
							19·17	39·92 1932	9·81 1905
			1				38·18	74·21 1914	22·87 1945
276	301								
300	325								
11	3						243·07	322·58 1908	132·82 1905

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

FORESTS.

General distribution.

PHYSICALLY, THE FORESTS OF KOLHAPUR are a southward extension of the forest types of Poona and Satara districts. The wooded areas are confined to the western half of the tract. The western rim and its descending slopes claim a stunted type of evergreen vegetation. On the eastern fringes the over-wood consists of deciduous species with a ground-flora of evergreen species. The dry eastern plan claim scanty patches of wood-growth in land pockets. Three main forests types can be distinctly located, viz., (1) the sub-tropical evergreen, (2) the moist deciduous and the semi-evergreen, and (3) the dry deciduous forests.

Sub-Tropical Evergreen.

These occupy the high rainfall regions in the extreme west of the dstrict. No particular plant species can be marked as principal in the composition. *Jambhul, hirda, anjani, surangi, panjambhul* get mixed up in the top canopy with *pnansi*, etc., mostly coming in as sub-dominants. The lower storey and ground flora mostly consist of *karvi*, bracken fern and others. This composition is mainly confind to elevations round about 2,200′ above the mean sea level.

Semi evergreen and moist deciduous.

Barring the prominent existence of the deciduous species in the typical moist deciduous formation, the composition of the two is made of *jambhul, amba, nana, sissum, asana, kumbhi, bhava, panjambhul, kinjal, ain, kinai, umbar, biba, cnanste* and others. In forests of this type in Ajra mahal, the famous scented wood species, *chandan* (sandalwood) occurs profusely. Bamboos are sparse.

Dry-deciduous type.

The dry deciduous forests are strewn far and wide in small patches. The usual species of the drier zones occur here. The prominent feature in these forests is the total absence of *dhavda* and a greater incidence of *sissum*.

Area statement of forest.

The area statement of the forests in various Ranges of Kolhapur District is given below:—

Name of the Range.	Area of Reserved Forest.		Area of Protected Forest.		Area of Unclassed Forest.		Total	
	A.	g.	A.	g.	A.	g.	A.	g.
1. Karvir ..	10,437	25	12,476	38	824	15	23,738	38
2. Pauhala ..	47,783	12	21,343	13	....		69,126	25
3. Bhudargad ..	48,886	15	20,487	11	....		69,373	26
4. Ajra ..	15,036	33	18,323	03	248	15	33,608	11
5. Vishalgad ..	44,480	26	4,427	34	....		48,908	20
6. Bavada ..	18,318	10	....		....		18,318	10
7. Radhanagari ..	45,760	39	37,928	31	....		83,689	30
Total ..	2,30,704	00	1,14,087	10	1,067	30	3,46,759	00

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
FORESTS.
Area Statement of forest.

These forests have been classified as reserved, protected etc. by the former Kolhapur State. However, a regular forest settlement and demarcation as per the procedure laid down in the Indian Forest Act will have to be done. Besides, there are extensive areas known as *sheri* lands claimed by H. H. the Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur as his private property, which are well stocked with forests. The legal position of these *sheri* lands have not been finally decided.

General condition of the forests.

The past history of the forests is a story of working that utterly lacked forest sense. The unrestricted practice of shifting cultivation known as *kumri* has caused considerable devastation of the forests and the woods in most places are stunted regrown. Very little, if at all, has remained on the original state of growth over the entire tract. The only forest conservation attempts were the strict reservations of certain species like *teak, chandan, hirda,* and *sissum,* which were also the royal trees in *malki* lands. Attempts of artificial regeneration of valuable species were never organized on an extensive scale. As a result of all these factors, the forests of Kolhapur district do not present a very healthy picture. Strict conservancy and extensive artificial regeneration will form the main works in future to improve the forests.

Marketable Forest produce.

Firewood and grass are the main marketable products from these forests. Timber is of a very poor quality and meagre. *Hirda* fruit is produced in large quantities and most of it is consumed in the factory of the Amba Tannin and Pharmaceutical Limited for the extraction of tannin. This tannin extraction factory is the only one of its type in the State. The other minor forest products are enumerated below :—

(1) Kaju fruits.
(2) Watsol.
(3) Cocumbs.
(4) Mango fruit.
(5) Bibi fruits.
(6) Shikekai.
(7) Palas leaves.
(8) Kuchala seeds.
(9) Kumkum fal.
(10) Silver cotton.
(11) Honey and Wax.
(12) Karanj seeds.
(13) Rameta bark.
(14) Reeds.
(15) Wavding.
(16) Tembhurni leaves.
(17) Pisa fruits.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
FORESTS.

The following is a list of the chief trees, shrubs, climbers, bamboos and grass to be found in the Kolhapur district:—

Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
TREES.	
Ain ...	... *Terminalia tomentosa.*
Ain ...	... *Terminalia crenulata.*
Akas-Nimb ...	... *Millingtonia hortensis.*
Al or Bartondi	... *Morinda tinctoria.*
Alu ...	... *Vengueria spinosa.*
Amba ...	... *Mangifera indica.*
Amberi ...	... *Nothopegia colebrookiana.*
Ambgool, Narali	... *Elæagnus latifolia.*
Anjani ...	.. *Memecylon edule.*
Apta ...	... *Bauhinia recemosa.*
Arjun-Sadada 'Dhavada'.	*Terminalia arjuna.*
Asana, Katak	.. *Bridelia retusa.*
Avala ...	.. *Phyllanthus embilica.*
Babul ...	... *Acacia arabica.*
Bahawa ...	... *Cassia fistula.*
Behada, Vehola, Hela	.. *Terminalia belerica.*
Bel ...	... *Aegle marmelos.*
Bhamini ...	... *Colebrookia oppositifolia.*
Bhendi ...	... *Thespesia polulnea.*
Bhokar ...	.. *Cordia myxa.*
Bhoma ...	... *Glochidion lanceolarium.*
Bhutkes ...	... *Mussænda frondosa.*
Bhutya ...	... *Elaeodendron glaucum.*
Biba ...	... *Semecarpus anacardium.*
Bibi ...	... *Holigarna arnottiana.*
Bibla, Asan ...	... *Pterocarpus marsupium.*
Bocha ...	... *Salix ichnostachya.*
Bondara, Lendi	... *Lagerstrœmia parviflora.*
Bor ...	... *Zizyphus jujuba.*
Chandan .	... *Santalum album.*
Chandida ..	... *Macaranga roxburghii.*
Chapha ...	... *Michelia champaca.*
Char, Charoli	... *Buchanania latifolia.*
Chera ...	... *Erincarpus nimmoanus.*
Chinch ...	... *Tamarindus indica.*
Dahiwan ...	... *Cordia macleodii.*

Local Vernacular Name.		Scientific Name.
Delchini ...	...	*Cinnamomum zeylanicum.*
Dandoshi ...	...	*Dalbergia lanceolaria.*
Datrang ...	...	*Ehretia canaransis.*
Dhhaman ...	...	*Grewia tiliæfolia.*
Dhavada, Dindal	...	*Anogeissus latifolia.*
Dikamali ...	...	*Gardenia lucida.*
Gela ...	...	*Randia dumetorum.*
Goinda, Kala ...	...	*Diospyros montana.*
Gulum, Gelam	...	*Machilus macrantha.*
Hadkya ...	...	
Halda, Hashwal	...	*Gholoroxylon swietenia.*
Hed ...	...	*Adina cordifolia.*
Hingan ...	...	*Balanites roxourghii.*
Hirda ...	...	*Terminalia chebula.*
Humb ...	...	*Saccopetalum tomentosum.*
Hure ...	...	*Sapium insigne.*
Jam, Peru ...	...	*Psidium guayava.*
Jambhul ...	...	*Eugenia jambolana.*
Kajr, Kuchla ..	...	*Strychnos nuxvomica.*
Kaju ...	...	*Anacardium occidentale.*
Kalamb ...	...	*Mitragyna parvifolia.*
Kanchan ...	...	*Bauhinia variegata*
Kapsin, Siddum	...	*Tetrameles nudiflora.*
Kapshi ...	...	*Ligustrum neilgherrense.*
Karanj ...	...	*Pongamia glabra.*
Karmal, Karambel	...	*Dillenia indica.*
Kavath .	...	*Feronia elephantum.*
Kel ..	..	*Ficus tsjakela.*
Kesari .	...	*Pterospermum heyneanum.*
Khadshingi ..	...	*Stercospormum xylocarpum.*
Kheir ...	...	*Acacia catechu.*
Khargol .	...	*Trema orientalis.*
Kharwat ...	...	*Ficus asperrima.*
Kinai ..	...	*Albizzia paniculta.*
Kinjal ...	...	*Terminalia paniculata.*
Kirmira ..	...	*Ehretia species.*
Koshimb ...	..	*Schleichera trijuga.*
Kuda ..	...	*Holarrhena antidysenterica.*
Kuda Kala ...	...	*Wrightia tinctoria.*
Kuda Tambada	..	*Wrightia tomantosa.*
Kumbal, Kate	...	*Sideroxylon tomentosum.*

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Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
Kumbhi ...	... *Careya arborea.*
Kumkum Shendri	... *Mallotus philippinensis.*
Krpa ...	... *Hemigyrosa canescens.*
Kurwat ...	... *Ficus hispida.*
Kurkuti ...	... *Connarus wightii.*
Lodhra, Lodhya, Hura	... *Symplocos beddomei.*
Lokhandi ...	... *Ixora parviflora.*
Maharukh ...	... *Ailanthus excelsa.*
Moha ...	... *Rassia latifolia.*
Moina, Shemat	... *Lannea grandis.*
Mana ...	... *Legerstrœmia lanceolata.*
Nandruk ...	... *Ficus retuse.*
Neem ...	... *Azadirachta indica.*
Nimbara ..	... *Malia dubia.*
Padali ...	... *Stereospermum chalonoides.*
Palas .	... *Bhutea frondosa.*
Pangara ...	... *Erythrina indica.*
Pajarabhul ...	... *Olea dioica.*
Parvi ..	... *Wendlandia notoniana.*
Petari ...	... *Trewia nudiflora.*
Phanas ...	.. *Artocarpus integrifolia.*
Phansi ...	... *Carallia integerrima.*
Pimpal ..	... *Ficus religiosa.*
Pimpar ...	... *Ficus arnottiana.*
Pimpri ...	... *Ficus tsiela.*
Putranjiva ..	... *Putranjiva roxburghii.*
Ranbhendi ...	... *Thespesia lampas.*
Ranaphanas ...	... *Artocarpus hirsuta.*
Ratamba, Kokam	... *Caricinia indica.*
Ritha ...	... *Sapindus emarginata.*
Sag, Teak ..	... *Tectona grandis.*
Satwin ...	... *Alstonia schloris.*
Sawar Sewar	... *Bombax malabaricum.*
Sawar ..	... *Bombax insigne.*
Shindi ...	... *Phœnix sylvestris.*
Shiras ...	... *Albizzia lebbek.*
Shiras, Kala ...	... *Albizzia odoratissima.*
Shissam ...	... *Dalbergia latifolia.*
Shivan ...	... *Gmelina arborea.*
Sitaphal ...	... *Anona squamosa.*
Surangi, Undin	... *Calophyllum inophyllum.*

Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
Surangi ..	... *Ochrocarpus longifolius.*
Tad ...	... *Borassus flabellifer.*
Tamalpatra ...	... *Cinnamomum tamala.*
Tembhurni (Diospros melanoxylon).	*Oroxylum indicum.*
Tetu ..	... *Zeanthoxylum rhetsa.*
Triphal ...	...
Tiwas ...	... *Ougenia dalbergioides.*
Tugal, Lallai	... *Albizzia amara.*
Um, Hoom ..	... *Polyalthisucerasoides.*
Umber ...	... *Ficus glmoerata.*
Wad ...	... *Ficus bengalensis.*
Warang ...	... *Kydia calycina.*
Waras .	... *Heterophragma roxburghii.*
Wavla ...	.. *Holoptelia integrifolia.*
Wumb ...	... *Hcphelium longana.*

SHRUBS.

Adulsa ..	... *Adhatoda vasica.*
Adulsa—Vilayati	.. *Justicia rcynandensis.*
Amoni ...	.. *Rhus mysorensis.*
Amartya, Warkya	.. *Nappia fœtida.*
Anantmul ...	... *Hamidesmus indicus.*
Bracken fern...	... *Ptoris accuirina.*
Bugdi ...	... *Ardisia humilis.*
Chillar ...	... *Cæsalpinia sepiaria.*
Chimnati ...	.. *Indigofera pulcholla.*
Chitrak .	... *Plumbago zeylanica.*
Dagadful ..	.. *parmelia ceperatc.*
Dhaity .	... *Woodfordia floribunda.*
Dinda ...	... *Leea macrophylla.*
Duranta ..	... *Duranta plumerii.*
Erand .	... *Ricinus communis.*
Ghagri ...	... *Crotalaria retusa.*
Ghaneri, Tanatani	.. *Lantana camara.*
Ghatbor ...	... *Zizyphus xylopyra.*
Ghaypat ...	... *Agave sisalana.*
Harki ...	... *Rauwolfia serpentina.*
Hasoli, Asolin, Shirul	... *Grewia microcos.*
Henkal ...	... *Gymnosporia montana.*
Huli, Gowari	... *Hibiscus furcatus.*

Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
Ingali ...	... *Gymnosporia emarginata.*
Jephali ...	... *Jatropha curcas.*
Kanguli, Bandgul	... *Loranthus longiflorus* (on teak, ain amba and Kumbhi) *L. cunearus* (on Kinjal).
Kanheri ..	.. *Nerium odorum.*
Kanphulia, Bisur	... *Callicarpa lanata.*
Kankuti ...	... *Flemingia strobilifera.*
Kare ..	... *Webera corymbosa.*
Karhi-Nimb ...	... *Murraya kœnigii.*
Kari, Bhandire	... *Clerodendron infortunatum.*
Karwand ...	... *Carissa carendas.*
Karvi ...	... *Strobilanthes callosus.*
Kate-ringani ...	... *Solanum xanthocarpum.*
Kaundal ...	... *Trichosanthes palmata.*
Kavli ...	... *Phyllanthus reticulatus.*
Kevani ..	... *Helicteres isora.*
Kusari ...	... *Jasminum arboresoens.*
Lal Chameli ...	... *Quisqualis indica.*
Lajalu ...	... *Mimosa pudica.*
Madzhing ...	... *Dolichondronl falcata.*
Mahalunga ...	... *Citrus medica.*
Mondie ...	... *Lawsonia alba.*
Morbel ...	... *Clematis triloba.*
Moriel ...	... *Clematis gouriana.*
Nagphani ..	... *Opuntia dilleni.*
Nakchikni ...	... *Maravellia zeylanica.*
Neptad ...	... *Capparis aphylla.*
Nigdi ...	... *Vitex trifolia.*
Nil ..	... *Indigofera tinctoria.*
Nivdung ...	... *Euphorbia neriifolia.*
Nivdung ...	... *Euphorbia antiquorum.*
Pandhari ..	... *Murraya exotica.*
Pandharphali	... *Flueggia microcarpa.*
Pitkuli ...	... *Eugenia zeylanica.*
Pitkuli Pendgul	... *Ixora coccinea.*
Pilu Katri .	... *Salvadora oleocides.*
Pithori ..	... *Gymnosporia Konkanensis.*
Phulati ..	... *Acacia latronum.*
Rametha ...	... *Lasiosiphon eriocephalus.*
Rui ...	... *Catstropia gigantea.*

Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
Shatavri ...	... *Asparagus racemosus.*
Sher ...	... *Euphorbia turucalli.*
Sunn or Indian Hemp	... *Grotolaria junces.*
Sabja ...	... *Abutilon indicum.*
Sudra ...	... *Ocimum basilocum.*
Tarwad ...	... *Cassia auriculata.*
Tippan or Tipani	... *Allophylus cobbe.*
Toran ...	... *Zizyphus rugosa.*
Tulas ...	... *Ocimum sanctum.*
Tupa, Chichori, Panyal	... *Canthium umbellatum.*
Ukshi ...	... *Calycopteris floribunda.*
Van Kapus ...	... *Hibiscus vitifolius.*
Vavding ...	... *Embelia ribes.*

CLIMBERS.

Alei ...	... *Dalbergia volubillis.*
Bhuikohala ...	... *Ipomœa digitata.*
Canc ...	... *Catamum psedotenious thawaitesic.*
Chambuli ...	... *Bauhinia vahlii.*
Chikani ...	... *Bridelia stipularis.*
Ghotwel ...	... *Smilax macrophylla.*
Gunj ...	.. *Abrus precatorius.*
Kavli ..	... *Cryptolepis bunchanani*
Kirkali ...	... *Grewia pilosa.*
Kuhili ...	... *Mucuna pruriens.*
Madwel ...	... *Combretum ovalifolium.*
Navalicha Wel	... *Ipomœa vitifolia.*
Palaswel ..	.. *Butea superba.*
Paryel ..	... *Cyclea peltata.*
Pondguliwel ...	.. *Dalbergia sympathetica.*
Shembi ...	.. *Acacia pennata.*
Shikekai ...	... *Acacia concinna.*
Supli ..	.. *Mundulea suberosa.*
Takla ...	... *Cassia tora.*
Tugelmi ...	... *Ipœmia campanulata.*
Unhali ...	... *Tephrosia purpurea.*
Vatoli ...	... *Cocculus macrocarpus.*
Wakeri ...	... *Wagatea spicata.*

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Physical Features.
FORESTS.

Local Vernacular Name.	Scientific Name.
	BAMBOO.
Chiva, Tokar, Modar, Mace.	*Dendrocalamus strictus.*
Konda ...	... *Oxytenanthera stocksii.*
Ranchiva ...	... *Oxytenanthera monostigma.*
Velu, Kalak, Padhai ..	*Bambusa arundinacea.*
	GRASSES.
Bhongrat ...	... *Anthistiria ciliata.*
Bhale kusal ...	... *Andropogon tricticeus.*
Buld grass ...	... *Cyperus bulbosus.*
Chirka ..	... *Eragrestis tremula.*
Chanya marvel	... *Andropogon pertusus.*
Condal ...	... *Andropogon permilis.*
Harali ...	... *Cynodon dactylon.*
Kunda ...	... *Ischœmum pilosum.*
Kusali ...	... *Andropogon contortus.*
Marvel ...	... *Andropogon annulatus.*
Hut grass ...	... *Cyperus rotundus.*
Pandhari kusal	... *Aristida paniculata.*
Pavnya ...	... *Ischœnum suleatum.*
Phuli ...	... *Apluda varia.*
Rosha ...	... *Andropogon schœnanthus.*
Shenda ...	... *Ischœnum laxum.*
Shimpi ...	... *Panicum isachne.*
Wavashi ...	... *Saccharum procerum.*

WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

THE WILD LIFE OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT is mainly confined to the hilly region of the Sahyadris and its foot hills. It is essentially similar to that prevailing in the Deccan plateau generally. During the ex-Kolhapur State regime, the position of wild life was very safe indeed. The Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur and his feudatory Jahagirdars were keen naturalists, interested in the preservation of wild life. Shooting of wild life was the exclusive sport of the royal family, and illicit shooting or poaching was crushed with an iron hand. As a result of strict protection to wild life they were found in fairly large number in the forest areas of the Kolhapur district. However, the merger of the State with

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WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Bombay State, wild life has dwindled down considerably. The increase in population and consequent indiscriminate cutting of forest for extension of cultivation under the Grow More Food Campaign, the development of roads and fast-moving vehicles, the illicit shooting and poaching for food and profit by people possessing crop protection guns, both in and out of season, and without reference to sex or age, and trapping and snaring by professional hunting tribes, have all contributed to wholesale destruction of wild life. The Black-buck has almost come on the verge of extinction. Government have realised the urgent need for protecting the wild denizens of the forest and the passing of the Bombay Wild Animals and Wild Birds Protection Act (IV of 1951) is a great step towards the preservation of wild life.

Mammals of Beasts of prey.

The most prominent amongst mammals of beasts of prey are the Tiger (Panthera tigris Linn), Patait Vagh, Panther or Leopard (Panthera pardus Linn)—M. Dahanya Vagh or Biblya Vagh.

Tigers were once in plenty in the hill forests of the Sahyadris. But now they are rare and met with only in the denser forests of the following places :—

Radhanagari Range:

Patyacha Dang, Kala Dang, Surangi, Rametha.

Bavada Range :

Karul, Bavada Sadure.

Ajra Range :

Suleran, Gavse.

Human beings are as a rule unmolested, and no man-eaters have been recorded in the recent past. However, due to extermination of sambhars, cheetals, etc., which form their natural food, tigers are reported to have become cattle lifters. Leopards are comparatively rare but panthers are less intolerant of heat and are found in the thick evergreen to semi-evergreen hill forests of the district. Wild boar and porcupines form their natural food. Village dogs, goats and donkeys are also taken occasionally. The leopard is perhaps the most effective natural check against the wild pig, whose ravages in paddy and sugarcane fields are notorious and hence it may be considered a great friend of the agriculturists

Among the leopards and panthers, several varieties are distinguished locally. 'Dahanya Vagh' the spotted tiger, which is very rarely found now, is dreaded more than the tiger. 'Biblya Vagh' is said to be of three kinds, two large, *viz.*, Karanjya and Tendva and one small, *viz.*, Khandli or Biblya.

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WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Mammals of Beasts of prey.

The general distribution of panthers or leopards in the district is as under :—

Panhala Range :

Western strip of the Panhala range about 10 miles in width.

Radhanagari Range :

Patyacha Dang, Kaladang, Surangi and Rametha.

Ajra Range :

Suleran, Savse and Awandi.

Bavada Range :

Karul, Bavada and Sadure.

The serious encroachment of cultivation into the natural habitat of panthers and leopards has been mainly responsible for reducing their incidence considerably. The hunting leopard or the *chita* is now extinct, as is the case in Central India, where it was once found in plenty.

Cats.

Among the wild cats *felis chaus* (*M. Ran manjar*) occurs to a considerable extent. It lives in open forests and shrub jungle and is a serious pest of the poultry. The other two varieties of cats live in thick forests but are comparatively rare, viz., paradoxcerus musanga (M. *Kavali manjar*) and Viverricula indica (M. *Javadi manjar* or the small Indian civet cat). The civet cat is valued for its civet which, in small dosage, is used in perfumery and medicine.

Bears.

The Sloth Bear (*Melursus ursiners* M. Asval) is restricted to the well-wooded hilly portions of the Ghat area. During the day, it lives in hollows in rocks or in ravines and at night times comes down to the plains in search of honey combs and Mahua flowers, of which it is very fond. It lives on roots and fruits of forest trees and feeds on ants and insects. It seldom attacks man unprovoked and does little injury to cattle.

Dog tribe.

Of the Dog tribe the principal representatives are :—

(1) The striped Hyæna (*Hyana striata*-M. Taras) is fairly common in all hills and forests. It generally seeks shelter in natural holes or caves during day time, and moves about during night time in search of animal carcasses. It is a useful scavenger.

(2) The wolf (*Ganis lupus*-M. Landaga) is generally found in plains but its number has considerably diminished. It lifts sheep and goats at night.

(3) The jackal (*Canis aureus*-M. Kolha) is found in abundance in the plains. It is a useful scavenger but at the same time it is harmful to poultry, sugarcane and groundnut.

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WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.
Dog tribe.

(4) The Indian Fox (*Canis aureus*-M. *Kolha*) is common in the open country in the eastern portion of the district. It is a useful animal to the agriculturists in that it lives chiefly on field rats, mice, reptiles and insects. The jackals and foxes in the small hill round about Kolhapur give an excellent coursing, which is a favourite amusement among the Maratha aristrocracy.

(5) The Wild dog (*Cuon alpinus*-M. Kolsunda) is highly destructive of sambhar and other game. They usually hunt in packs of 20 to 25. Even the tiger and panthers get scared by the presence of wild dogs.

Bats.

Among the bats the Flying Fox (*Peteropus giganteus*-M. Waghul) is quite common. They cause great damage to orchards, especially as they raid, usually after sunset, in large numbers.

Rodents.

Among the rodents, the Indian porcupine (*Hystrix lencura*, Gray and Hard wicke M. Salındar) is very common. It lives in burrows dug in the ground or rocky hill sides and is very harmful to agriculture as well as to forest plantations. It eats up all the seed sown and also gnaws and uproots seedlings to eat the efishy cotyledons.

The Giant Squirrel (*Ratufa indica*) is very attractive due to its bright reddish brown colour. It is found rarely in the Ghat forests.

The Five striped squirrel (*Funambulus pennanti*-M. Khar) is usually found in the neighbourhood of habitations. It is highly destructive of forest seeds, both in nurseries and in plantations.

Hare.

The Hare (*Lepus nigricallis*-M. Sasa) is found in the scrub jungle. Due to their unregulated hunting and snaring by the local tribes, their number has depleted considerably.

Deer.

The deer family is perhaps the worst affected by the illicit shooting and poaching. It needs complete protection, at least for some years to come. At present they are found only in the interior forests in the Sahyadris.

The Sambhar (*Rusa aristotelis*-M. Sambhar) is restricted to the hilly portions. They are mainly found in the forests of the following places:—

Bavada Range:

Palsambe, Saitawade, Aslaj.

Ajra Range:

Latgaon, Haloli, Gavse.

Radhanagari Range:

Patyacha Dang, Kaladang, Surangi, Rametha.

Karvir Range:

Mhasurli.

CHAPTER 1. Physical Features. WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS. Deer.

The spotted deer (*Axis maculatus*-M. Cheetal) prefers plains and the foot-hills of forests in the neighbourhood of cultivation. Their number has considerably dwindled. They mainly occur in Pombare forests of Panhala Range and the Latgaon, Haloli, and Gawase forests of Ajra Range. It is the fairest of India's deer. "There is no more beautiful sight in creation than a *Chital* stag in sun-flecked dell".*

The Barking deer (*Muntiacus muntijakay*-M. Bhekar) is also met with in small numbers, in forests of Karvir, Ajra and Radhanagari Ranges.

Among the antelopes, mention may be made of the Black-buck (*Antilope cervicapra*-M. Kalvita). This is an inhabitant of the open shrub and plain grassy areas in the neighbourhood of cultivation. At one time they used to move in large herds in open parts of Raibag and Shirol. At present, it has become almost extinct due to indiscriminate shooting by illegal methods, without regard to age or sex.

The Mouse deer (*Meminna indica*-M. Pisora) is only occasionally found in the forests of Sahyadris.

Bison.

Gour or the Indian Bison (*Gavæcus gaurus*-M. Gau) is the largest of all existing bovines. The Marathas consider bison a bull and generally do not shoot it. Because of this superstition, the bisons have received natural protection and are found in fairly large numbers especially in the Radhanagari Range. They occur principally in the following places:—

Radhanagari Range:

Patyacha Dang, Kala Dang, Surangi, Rametha.

Panhala Range:

Kolik, Barki, Gothane, Padsali, Kode Bk., Asandoli, Pombare, Anaskura forests.

Bavada Range:

Kitawade jungle area (Gangotri site).

Of the smaller animals allied to both cat and dog, the common Mongoose (*Herpestes Edkardsii*-M. Mungusa) deserves mention. It is destructive to snakes, both poisonous and non-poisonous, and sometimes becomes a serious threat to poultry because of its mass-slaughtering propensities.

Boars.

The Wild Boar (*Sus indicus*-M. Dukar) occurs in abundance in all the hill forests of the district. They usually come out at night in large herds, and cause wholesale destruction of agricultural crop. It is the greatest enemy of the agriculturists, to whom gun licences are given liberally for crop protection. Boar hunting is favourite sport among the Marathas.

* Robert A. Sterndale, Natural History of the Mammalia of India and Ceylon, pp. 506–507.

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Physical Features.
WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.
Monkeys.

Monkeys, both 'makads' and 'vanars' are found all over the district. The 'vanar', the larger one generally frequents near about villages, whereas the 'makad' is generally seen in the interior forests. Due to large-scale destruction of forests, the monkeys have been forced to make depredations on gardens and orchards and do considerable damage. Out of respect for Hanuman, the monkey God, the Hindus, as a rule, do not shoot monkeys.

Birds.

Most of the birds given by Shri Salim Ali in his catalogue on the Birds of Deccan are found in Kolhapur.

The principal game birds of the district are:—

(i) Green Pigeons (M. Harial).

(ii) Pigeons (M. Parwa), especially the green rock pigeon commonly inhabiting the hill forts.

(iii) Grey Partridge (M. Titur or Citur).

The Grey Jungle Fowl (M. Ran Kombada) is found only in the interior thick forest areas. The Peafowl (M. Mor or Landor) has become comparatively very rare.

The Great Indian Bustard (M. Hum, Kardhonk) and the Lesser Florican (M. Canya Mor), which live in open shrub areas, have become rare due to indiscriminate snaring and netting by the professional tribes.

FISH AND FISHERIES.
Fishes.

THE PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT are of varied nature consisting of plains, plateaus and hill ranges. The Western Ghat which forms the western boundary of the district has thrown several spurs in the eastern region. The high altitudes of these ranges and spurs with their copious rainfall, have given rise to a number of streams and small valleys. The six rivers of the district, namely, the Warna, Panchaganga, Dudhaganga, Wedganga, Hiranyakeshi and Ghataprabha, offer many sites suitable for dams and weirs. Due to construction of a series of weirs on the Panchaganga, which is formed by the confluence of five streams, the Tulsi, Kasari, Bhogawati, Brahmi, and Kumbhi, a considerable quantity of water is retained in the river, thereby affording suitable habitat for a large number of fish. Further, when the tributaries of this river dry up after the monsoon, fishes from these tributaries also migrate into the Panchaganga for shelter and forage. Besides, there are many natural lakes, irrigation tanks, reservoirs and perennial ponds, chief of which are Radhanagari reservoir, Rankala lake, Kagal tank, Atigra tank, Kalamba tank, Wadgaon tank, Rajaram tank and Talasanda tank, where piscicultural activities are being undertaken by the department. With the implementation of several new irrigation development schemes, which have a direct or indirect bearing on fisheries, pisciculture is bound to gain more importance in this region.

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Physical Features.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Fishes.

Important fresh water fauna of the district comprises the following varieties of fish:—

Scientific Name.		Local Name.
ORDER: OPISTHOMI.		
Family: MASTACEMBELIDÆ.		
Mastacembelus armatus (Lacep.)	...	Vam, Vambat.

Vam which is usually found in rivers, does not figure much in the catches. It attains a size of about two feet and is highly prized as food. It is usually caught on small hooks as it frequents boulders with some currents where it is difficult to net.

ORDER: APODES.

Family: ANGUILLIDÆ.

Anguilla anguilla (Ham.) ... Aheer.

Aheer from the eel group is a rare variety found in rivers. It is usually caught by hooks and line. Being a foul eater, is not much relished as food though its flesh is considered as a diet for invalids. It is disliked by many in view of its snake like appearance. It grows to about 4 feet in length.

ORDER: EVENTOGNATHI.

Family: CYPRINIDÆ.

Sub-family: *Abramidinæ.*

Oxyaster clupeoids (Bl.)	...	Vadshi.
Oxyaster phulo	...	Alkut.

These are bright silvery fishes, locally known as *vadshi* or *alkut*. The former grows to about 9 inches while the latter grows to about 4 inches. These are abundant in rivers and constitute the mainstay of the fishermen as well as of the poor consumers as the fish is cheap and available in large quantities. They are surface feeders, subsisting mainly on planktonic insect larvæ and worms. In view of their larvicidal character, they are regarded as useful in animal anal campaign.

Sub-family: *Rasborinæ.*

Barilius bendelisis (Ham.)	..	Jhorya.
Barilius evezardi (Day)	...	Jhorya.
Perilampus atpar (Ham.)	...	Sonukli.
Danio æquipinnatus (MeClelland)	...	Balloki.
Brachydanio rario (Ham.)	...	Dandai.
Rasbora daniconius (Ham.)	...	Dandvan.

Of the aforesaid varieties, only *dandvan* is common in the catches while the remaining are found in small numbers in

rivers and streams. These fishes being small in size, are not valued much. Nevertheless, they form food for the poor class. *Dandvan* and *dandai* in view of their brilliant colours find a place in aquarium. *Dandvan* and *balooki* are of some use as larvicidal fish.

Sub-family : Cyprininæ.

Puntius (Tor) khudree (Sykes).—Locally called as *mhasheed*—is the angler's delight. It is also called as *mahaseer* of the Deccan and is found in most of the rivers of Kolhapur, particularly in parts of rivers frequented by *Garra-mullya*. It prefers rocky-bed and moderately strong current. The fish attains large size and reaches a weight of 30 to 40 lbs.

Puntius (Tor) *mussullah* (Sykes): Mhasheed is another large size carp and reaches a length of over three feet and weighs over 20 lbs. It is one of the species of *mahaseers* and gives good sport to the anglers.

Puntius jerdoni (Day)	...	Parag.
Puntius kolus (Sykes)	...	Kolshi.
Puntous sarana (Ham.)	...	Khavli.

The above species are medium sized carps growing from 6 to 18 inches and weighing upto a seer or more and are common in most of the lakes and rivers of Kolhapur. They are used as food all over the district and are also of some value as semi-game fishes.

Puntius ticto (Ham.).—Locally called as *khavli*, is a small hardy species. It has no value as food but is useful as larvicidal fish of the district.

Other *Puntius* species are:—

Puntius amphibius (C. and V.)	..	Khavli.
Puntius melanostigma (Day)	...	Khavli.
Puntius stigma (C. and V.)	...	Khavli.
Puntius fraseri (Hora and Misra)	..	Kadwi.

The following five Labeo species which are common carps of Kolhapur waterways are esteemed as food and game fishes:—

Labeo calbasu (Ham.)	.	Kanas.
Labeo boggut (Sykes)	...	Sandasi, Sandas.
Labeo fimbriatus (Bl.).	...	Tambir.
Labeo porcellus (Heckel)	...	Tambudki.
Labeo bata	. .	Tambti.

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Physical Features.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Fishes.

Other fishes belonging to this sub-family are:—

Garra mullya (Sykes)	...	Mullya.
Garra bicornuta (Rao)	...	*Mullya.*
Cirrhina fulungee (Sykes)	...	Mulicha ganna.
Cirrhina reba (Ham.)		
Rohtee cotio (Ham.)	...	Phankut.
Rohitee vigorsii (Sykes)	..	Vatani.

Schizmatorhynchus (Nukta) *nukta* (Sykes).—Nukta or bhobri—is the two-mouthed fish of the local fishermen—rather a rare variety. A conspicuous slit which lies near the nasal apertures and above the oral aperture, has given two-mouthed appearance to the fish.

Rapidly growing varieties of carps viz., *Catla catla* (Ham.), *Labeh rohita* (Ham.) and *Cirrhina mrigala* (Ham.) locally called *catla, rohu* and *mirgal* respectively and imported from Bengal, have been introduced in irrigation tanks and reservoirs by the Department of Fisheries. They are expected to breed and establish themselves in due course and thus provide a local source for producing the major carp fry. *Catla,* the quickest growing carp, weighing upto 40 lbs. is caught from the tank stocked. *Rohu* and *mirgal* weighing upto 20 lbs. are common, in catches brought from the tanks leased out. They grow up to three feet in length and are highly esteemed as food.

Family: COBITIDÆ.

Lepidocephachthys quntea (Ham.)	..	Mori.
Lepidocephachthys thermalic (C. & V.).		Mori.
Nemachilichtys ruppelli (Sykes)	..	Chikli.
Nemachilus denisonii (Day)	..	Murunga.
Nemachilus botius (Ham.)	...	Chikli.
Nemachilus sp.	..	Chikli.

Botia striata var. kolhapurensis non-Waghmasa.

These are small varieties not growing more than three inches. They are bottom feeders, dwelling usually on gravelly and sandy bottom. There is a belief that soup prepared from these fishes cures cough and cold.

Waghmasa from the loaches group is a beautiful coloured fish. The body is diversified by broad dark and narrow yellow bands. On the upper surface of the head the dark and yellow streaks form a trident mark. The fish being hardy and beautiful, finds a place in the aquaria.

ORDER: OSTARIOPHYSI

SUB-ORDER: SILUROIDÆ.

Family: SILURIDÆ.

Ompak bimaculatus (Bl.)	...	Wanz.
Ompak pabo (Ham.)	...	Kaliwanj
Wallago attu (Bl.)	...	Valshivada.

All these varieties of fish are carnivorous and are highly esteemed as food. *Wanj* and *kaliwanj* grow to about one foot in length. *Valshivada* grows to about five feet and is called a fresh water shark in view of its voracious nature. They are found in rivers as well as in tanks.

Family: BAGRIDÆ.

Mystus cavasius (Ham.)	...	Katirna.
Mystus seenghala (Sykes)	...	Singalu.
Mystus malabaricus (jerdon)	...	Shingti.
Mystus aor (Ham.)	...	Shingalu.
Rita hastata (Val.)	...	Kurdu.
Rita pevinientata (Val.)	.	Ghoghrya.

These fishes are usually found in rivers. *Katirna, shingti, ghoghrya* grow to about 10 inches while *kudru* grows to about six inches. Shingalu grows to about 18 inches and is relished as food.

Family: SISORIDÆ.

Gagata itchkeea (Sykes)	...	Itchka.
Glyptothorax lonah (Sykes)	..	Phattar chittu.
Glyptothorax annandalei (Hora)	..	Phattar chittu.
Bagarius bagarius (Ham.)	..	Khirit.

All these varieties are found in rivers and are not very common in the catches *Khirit* also known as blind fish, in view of its very small eyes as compared to its huge body, is sometimes caught in river Panchaganga and Krishna. It is an ugly looking fish yellowish in colour with large irregular brownish black cross bands. It is considered as the largest fresh water fish. It grows to an enormous size. Specimens measuring about five and half feet and weighing upto 150 lbs. have been caught in the river Panchganga.

Family: SCHILBEIDÆ.

Prœutropictlys taakree (Sykes)	..	Munvi, Vyadi.
Neotrpius khavalchor (Kulkarni)	...	Khavalchor.
Pseudotropius atherinoide (Bl.)	..	Sura

These fishes are found only in rivers and are not very common in the catches. They grew to about eight to ten inches in length. *Khavalchor* occurs in Krishna and Panchganga rivers. Its specific local name signifies its remarkable lepidophagous habit of feeding on the scales of others fishes.

ORDER: CYPRINODONTES.

Family: CYPRINODONTIDÆ.

Aplochilus lineatus (C. and V.)

It is a small fish not growing more than three inches. It is a surface feeder known for its larvicidal nature. It is found in river Bhogavati and rarely in Panchaganga river.

ORDER: SYNENTOGNATHI.

Family: XEMENTODONTIDÆ.

Xenentodon cancila ... Takali.

This fish is rarely found in rivers and is not of commercial importance.

ORDER: LABYRINTHICI.

Family: OPHICEPHALIDÆ.

Chana gachua (Ham.)	... Dokarya.
Chana leucopunctatus (Sykes)	... Kalamasa, Murrel.
Chana marulius (Ham.)	... Kalamasa, Murrel.
Channa striatus (Bl.)	... Mangsha.
Osphronemus goramy (Lacep).	... Gorami.

Dokarya, *murrel* and *mangsha* are generally found in rivers and tanks. Being carnivorous, they are not useful for fish culture. *Murrel* or *Kalamasa* are highly esteemed for their flesh, hence highly priced as compared to other fishes. They grow to about three feet to four feet in length. In view of their snake-like appearance, they are called as "snake-headed fishes". Due to presence of accessory respiratory organs, they can remain alive out of water for a considerable time. *Dokrya* and *mangsha* grow to about a foot in length.

Gorami is newly introduced in some of the tanks in Kolhapur district. It grows to about one and half foot in length. This fish breeds in confined waters and being herbivorous, is eminently suitable for fish culture

ORDER: PERCOMORPHI.

Family: AMBASSIDÆ.

Ambassis ranga (Ham.)	... Kachki, Chambardi.
Ambassis nama (Ham.)	... Kachki, Chambardi.

These are small carnivorous fishes found in tanks and rivers. They grow to about two to three inches in length. They are termed as "Glass fish" in view of their transparent body. They find a place in the acquaria.

ORDER: GOBIODÆ.

Family: GOBIIDÆ.

Glassogobius giuris (Ham.) ... Kharpya.

Fishing in rivers and tanks is done by means of cast nets (Phenkani), fixed nets (Ghal) drag nets (Vadap), drift nets (Kandale) and hook and line (Gana).

Cast Net.

The most elementary type of net in vogue which can still continue to be of great use to inland fisheries, is the cast net locally known as *Phekani, Phek-jal, Sokari* and *Jhyar*. This net when cast in water takes the form of a perfect circle and settles down over the fish. At the centre of this circle, there is a long string for pulling the net. The periphery of the net is provided with weights to make it sink down quickly into the depths. The peripheral margin of the net is folded to form a series of pockets wherein fish get trapped when the net is hauled by pulling the string. The mesh of the net varies from ½" to 2" (square) depending on the size of the fish to be caught. This net is made of twine and the cost varies from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 according to the size and mesh of the net.

Fixed Net (Ghal, Sarkhva, Bagar).

It is a conical type of net, the base of which is open and rectangular. The length of the net from the rim of the base to the tapering cod end is about 35 feet and the circumference at the mouth varies from 30 feet to 40 feet. The size of the mesh diminishes as the net tapers towards its extremity where it forms an impenetrable bag. The net at the mouth is made of strong hemp twine with 4" mesh (square) and at the tapering end it is made of thin twine with ½" mesh (square).

The net is operated just after monsoon till there is strong current in the river. The net is so fixed that its mouth is kept wide open against the current in a rectangular form by supporting the lateral sides of the mouth by means of two strong bamboo poles. The poles are kept in position by means of wire ropes which are firmly fixed on both the banks. The fish collected at the cod end is taken out by loosening the ropes tied round it. The cost of the net is about Rs. 200.

Drag nets (Bava).

This is the largest type of net used for capture of fish both in rivers and tanks. The net is made of cotton twine and consists of 10 to 20 rectangular pieces, the number depending on the width of the sheet of water and on middle conical piece. Each piece is about 18 feet in length and 22 feet in height with 1" stretched mesh. The middle piece is conical in shape and with its cod-end resembles the fixed net described above. The rings formed by the rectangular pieces on either side of this conicle bag are very extensive and collect the fish in the bag when dragged. The whole net while in operation is provided with wooden or tin floats along the head rope

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Physical Features.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Cast Net.
Drag nets (Bava).

to increase the buoyancy. A few small stones are tied to the ground rope to serve as sinkers. These keep the net erect. The operation of this net is interesting. A wall net is first stretched across the river, where fishing operations are to be undertaken, so that the fish scared by the drag net may not escape. Then the drag net is spread across the river about a furlong away from the wall net. Two coir ropes about 2" thick and about 50 feet long are tied to the ends of the drag net. Each end is pulled by 10-15 persons and the net is thus dragged along the river. When the drag net comes closer to the wall net, its one end is joined to the adjacent end of the other net. Then the two free ends are pulled and the combined net is dragged across the river on to the bank. In the process of dragging the net, most of the fish are enclosed in the central conical part of the drag net, from where they are emptied by loosening the rope tied round cod end. The drag net is operated in the tank in the manner described above except that the stationary wall net is not used, as the drag net is hauled on the opposite bank. Each rectangular piece costs about Rs. 75 and the middle conicle piece costs about Rs. 250.

Drift Nets.

Drift nets known as *kandals*, used in the Kolhapur district, are of different meshes varying from 1½" to 7". Usually 24 rectangular pieces are joined together and operated by 12 fishermen. The net while in operation is provided with small sticks of reed locally known as "*kavas*", along the head rope to increase the buoyancy. A few small stones or earthenware ovals are tied to the ground rope to serve as sinkers. The drift nets are used in summer when the depth of water in the rivers and tanks is considerably reduced. The common drift nets used in deep waters elsewhere are not yet common in Kolhapur waters, although they are being introduced by the Department of Fisheries in deep tanks and reservoirs as the Laxmi Reservoir (Radhanagari), Kalamb Reservoir etc.

Hook and Line.

In addition to fishing by nets, hook and line method of fishing is also followed by fishermen of Kolhapur district. About 200 hooks are attached to a line which measures 1 600 feet in length. About two empty tins or dried pumpkins are attached to the head rope to serve as floats. This kind of fishing is practised throughout the year in deeper sheets of water.

Fishermen.

There are no concentrated fishing villages in the Kolhapur district as are found in the coastal district. The survey conducted by the department in 1955 reveals that there are 825 houses of fishermen scattered in 63 villages mostly on the banks of the rivers and their tributaries. The total population of fishermen is 5,775, out of which 993 are actively engaged in fishing. As fishing does not provide full-time job fishermen are obliged to work as field labourers and masons. All fishermen are Hindus and belong to three different sub-castes namely Bhoi, Bagdi and Koli. Monday is observed as sabbath day when no fishing is done. Fishermen after catching the fish prefer to sell it in the local markets if the catch is large.

Otherwise, fisherwomen and old men hawk the fish from door to door. Although fishcuring is not undertaken, considerable quantity of salted fish is imported into the district for local consumption from the Ratnagiri district.

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Physical Features.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Fishermen.

Co-operative societies.

There is only one co-operative society of Bhoi fishermen of Kolhapur entitled the "Bhoiraj Fisheries Co-operative Society Ltd. "The society obtains from the Fisheries Department fishing rights of tanks and lakes and portions of rivers in the district on concessional rental annually to provide gainful employment to its members."

Fresh water fisheries, particularly stocking of carp fry in inland waters and operation of deep tank fishing, provide ample scope for development in Kolhapur district. The Department of Fisheries, Bombay, extended its activities to Kolhapur and opened a sub-office at Kolhapur in 1951 to find a local source of supply of fish seed. Survey of sheets of water near Kolhapur indicated availability of fry of *Labeo fimbriatus*, locally known as "Tambir", in large quantity. The young ones (fry) are collected during monsoon and are reared in special nurseries. After they attain 4" to 6" size they are liberated in ponds and lakes. Although "Tambir" is found in plenty in the district, culture of this fish alone in ponds and tanks is not profitable on account of its comparative slow growth. Fry of quick growing varieties of carps such as *Catla*, *Rohu* and *Mrigal*, are, therefore. annually imported in large quantities from Calcutta and after rearing them to 4" to 6" size, they are released in ponds and lakes. This is being done with a view to enriching the fisheries of the district so that more and more nutritious food may be available to people and fishermen may have gainful employment.

Schemes included in the Second Five year Plan for the development of fisheries.

In addition to the above, the following schemes have been undertaken during the Second Five-Year Plan in the Kolhapur district.

Scheme for stocking of inland waters with carp fry.

Under this scheme fresh water sheets in the district will be stocked with rapidly growing varieties of carp fry specially imported from Calcutta. The scheme already formed a part of the 1st Five Year Plan and is continued in the 2nd Five Year Plan. The total targets set out for the district during the second plan period are as under :—

(i) Stocking of carp fry in Nos.—1,37,500.

(ii) Acres of water sheets to be surveyed—14,000.

(iii) Fish to be netted in lbs.—76,000.

Facilities for preservation, marketing and transport.

Under this scheme, one deep freezer is allotted to one of the fishermen's co-operative societies in the district for the purpose of preservation of unsold stock of fish. The deep freezer is allotted on the basis of 1/3 subsidy and 2/3 loan. Besides Government bear half the rental of the stall for first six months. The cost of the freezer is estimated at Rs. 4,500.

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FISH AND FISHERIES.

Development of Fisheries in deep tanks.

This scheme is envisaged to stock extensive irrigation reservoirs in the district with the fingerlings of the carp fry imported from Calcutta. The programme during the second plan period is as under :—

(1) Stocking of fish—(in number) 1,58,000

(2) Netting of fish—(in lbs.) 1,87,500.

SNAKES.

THOUGH SNAKES ARE PRESENT ALL OVER THE DISTRICT, a large variety of them abound in the region of Vishalgad, Bhudargad, Bavda and parts of Gadhinglaj. The reported cases of death due to snake bite in this district for the years 1948-1952, as given below, indicate the role played by these animals in the life of the people in this district.

No. of deaths due to snake bites.

Year.	Town Circle.	Rural Circle.	Total.
1949	2	44	46
1950	3	25	28
1951	4	38	42
1952	5	27	32

The snakes listed below are from records available in the Fauna of British India by Dr. Smith (1943), various observations in the Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society and personal investigations.

Non-Poisonous.

Family Typhlopidæ

Typhlops porrectus (*M. Daud*).—These are small worm-like snakes, without any distinct neck region. They are nearly blind. The colour ranges from deep to blackish brown and the scales on the body are cycloid. The pelvic girdle is represented by a couple of vestigeal bones. There is a spine at the tail end, which is used for burrowing in decaying wood and vegetation. It feeds upon worms and insects and grows to about eight inches in length and prefers to live underground.

Fam. Uropeltidea

Uropeltis Ocellatus and Uropeltis phipsoni.—The latter snakes are seen in the hilly and heavy monsoon regions of the district. The former is yellowish brown and the latter purplish brown. Transverse series of small yellow black edged ocelli are present on the dorsal side while the belly is brown with large yellow spots or cross-bars or mottled patches. They have small eyes at the tapering anterior end and grow to about 20 to 21 inches in length. They are found buried in soil at high altitudes, feeding on insects.

Family Boidæ

Python molurus molurus, (*M. Ajgar*)
Eryx conicus (*M. Parad*)
Eryx Johni (*M. Dutondya*)

Python molurus molurus (*M. Ajgar*) differs from *P. M. bivittatus* by the indistinctiveness of the lance-shaped mark on

head. These sluggish snakes prefer rocky slopes and also watery places. They are brown with pinkish spots and stripes. They grow up to 18 feet and often weigh more than 250 lbs. The food consists mainly of birds and mammals which are killed by constriction.

Eryx conicus (*M. Parad* and also *Durkya Ghonas*) yellowish, brownish or greyish above with a dorsal series of large, dark-brown, black-edged spots, usually confluent with one another to form a zigzag stripe; lower parts yellowish or whitish, the outer scale rows with small brown spots. Female is longer than male, two or three feet in length. It feeds on small frogs, birds, mammals and even snakes. It is a harmless sluggish snake often exhibited by snake charmers as poisonous.

Eryx Johni (*M. Dutondya*) is longer than *Eryx conicus*. It is sandy grey with black-edged dorsal brown scales, with distinct dark traverse bands, particularly in the tail end The underparts are whitish, spotted with dark brown. This snake is found more in hilly regions devoid of vegetation.

Fam : Colubridæ.

This family is represented by the following species of snakes:—

1. *Ptyas Mucosus* (*M. Dhaman*).
2. *Coluber fasciolatus* (*M. Nagin*).
3. *Liopeltis calamaria.*
4. *Oligodon tæniolatus.*
5. *Lycodon aulicus* (Wolf snake).
6. *Natrix piscator* (*M. Pan-divad*).
7. *Bioga forsteni.*
8. *Psammophis leithi.*
9. *Dryophis nasutus* (M. *sarptoli*).

Ptyas mucosus (M. *Dhaman*)—Brown with irregular but strongly marked black cross-bars on the posterior half of the body forming a reticulate pattern. The younger ones have dark-edged cross-bars on the anterior surface. These are very agile snakes often growing to about 10 feet in length. When cornered they emit a sound of a milder tone than a kite and strike viciously. The bite is, of course, not poisonous. The male is slightly slate coloured. It is rumoured that these snakes wind round the feet of cattle and lash with their tail. However, it has been observed that this snake is capable of twining round a body into a sort of bowline knot which is normally difficult to open. It may be that such knots are used for anchoring while catching its prey. This snake is very common and is an important enemy of rats. Farmers should not destroy this snake, as it helps them on reduce rodents on the farm.

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Physical Features.
SNAKES.
Non-Poisonous.

Coluber fasciolatus (*M. Nagin*).—Older *individuals* are uniformly brown with lower parts whitish or yellowish. The snake grows to about 4½ feet in length and is very vicious. When cornered, it erects and flattens the body behind the neck like a cobra ; so it is often mistaken to be a cobra.

Liopeltis calamaria.—Light-brown with black-edged scales showing distinct longitudinal lines along the vertebral region. A series of dark spots on each side of the head. These snakes are found particularly in the hilly region, though not very common.

Oligodon taeniolatus.—Light-brown to buff above with narrow black transverse cross-bars, the colour of which is confined to the edges of the scales. There are at least five colour variations. This snake is seen in gardens and often mistaken to be a krait. It is a harmless snake.

Lycodon amlicus.—These snakes are particularly nocturnal in habit and are excellent climbers. They bite readily when molested. It has a fondness for entering human habitations. It grows to about one foot in length and due to its deep brown colour and whitish cross-bars, it is often mistaken to be a krait. It is a harmless snake.

Natrix piscator (M. *Pan-divad*).—It is essentially a snake of the plains living near water, breeding prolifically olive coloured with black spots dorsally and a whitish belly similarly edged with dark spots. It grows to three feet and feeds on frogs. It is easily tamed and many snake charmers carry this snake in their bag. A couple of more species of Natrix are also available in the district.

Boiga forsteni (Cat snake).—Brown or reddish above with more or less regular, angular black spots or cross-bars with white spots between them. These are more distinct on the anterior half. This snake is more arboreal, feeding on calotes and birds and their eggs. It grows to about 4½ feet in length and is very vicious. It coils into a sort of figure of eight and strikes very viciously. It kills the prey by constriction.

Psammophis leithi.—Light, yellowish above with four dark-brown longitudinal stripes, the median pair on either side of the vertebral line, conspicuous and bordered on each side with black spots which may be continuous with one another, extending up to the eye.

This snake grows up to two feet in length.

Dryophis nasutus (M. *Sarptoli*).—Verdant green above, the interstitial skin, black and white, forming oblique lines best marked on the anterior half of the body. Pale-green below. It is essentially a snake of the trees living on lizards and birds' eggs. It looks harmless, but stares at the face and often has the habit of darting at the eyes.

Fam.: Elapidæ.—This is represented by the following snakes:—

Bungarus cæruleus (M. *Manyar*).

Bungarus fasciatus (M. *Aghi Manyar*).

Naja naja (M. *Nag*).

Callophis melanurus.

Bungarus cæruleus (M. *Manyar*).—Black above with a bluish line and having narrow white equidistant cross-bars more in the posterior region. Dorsal row of hexagonal scales and a single row of complete caudals distinguish this snake from others. It is a very quiet snake growing to about 4½ feet in length feeding on rats and other snakes. This is one of the most poisonous snakes of India, the poison of which is neurotoxic.

Bungarus fasciatus (M. *Aghi Manyar*) is found in the hilly regions. It is alternately banded with black or purplish-black bands on a yellow background. Head is bordered by a yellow stripe. The specimen grows up to four feet in length and is said to be poisonous.

Naja naja (M. *Nag.*).—This is quite a familiar snake with a hood, on which may be present a spectacle mark. The colour is brown but there are cases where the specimen was yellow. Such yellow specimen turn brown after a continuous exposure to atmosphere. This snake is not normally aggressive. It is worshipped on *Nagpanchmi* day. The main food consists of frogs, and rodents and the maximum length is about 5 feet 6 inches. When cornered it hisses intermittently and strikes with force. The poison is neurotoxic and this is an important poisonous snake of the locality.

Callophis melanurus (Coral snake).—Light brown above, head and neck black with yellow spots, tail with two black rings and the belly reddish in live specimen. This snake growing to above 2½ feet curls up to expose the red under surface. It is a poisonous snake.

Fam: Viperidæ.—This is represented by *Vipera russelli* (M. *Ghonas*), *Echis carinatus* (M. *Phoorsa*) and *Trimeresurus malabaricus*.

Vipera russelli (*M. Ghonas*).—Light brown above with three longitudinal series of large rounded or oval spots. These are usually brown in the centre and have a black margin edged with white. The vertebral chain may be confluent and the outer spots may be broken at their lower margins. This snake may be found both on the hills and in the plains. It hisses very loudly and deeply. It moves in a leisurely manner, but when disturbed and roused, it strikes with great force and determination literally hurling itself at its enemy. Grows to above five feet.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
SNAKES.
Poisonous Snakes.

The poison fangs are bigger than those of the cobra and the action of the poison is more on the vascular system. It is one of the four most common poisonous snakes of India.

Echis carinata (M. *Phoorsa*).—This small snake of the semi-desert is found in the rocky regions. It is a vicious creature, biting with least provocation, with great malice and with a lightning-like rapidity. When excited it has the peculiar habit of rubbing the sides of the body against one another, in doing so forming almost the figure of 8 with its head in the centre. It grows to about two feet in length. It is a brown snake with deep brown spots on the body and an arrow-shaped mark on the head. It is one of the four most common poisonous snakes of India.

Trimeresurus malabaricus.—This green pit viper growing to about two feet may be met with in jungles at high altitudes.

PART II

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY.*

CHAPTER 2.

History.

Early History.

EARLY HISTORY. (A.D. 100).

KOLHAPUR history may be divided into three periods, early Hindu period, partly mythic and partly historic, reaching to about A.D. 1347; Musalman period lasting from A.D. 1347 to about 1700; and Maratha period since 1700. Kolhāpūr would seem to be one of the very old cities in the country. In making some excavations on its site in 1877 the foundations of a large Buddhist relic mound were turned up and in the centre of the mound was found a square stone box with, on the inner face of its square lid, an inscription of about the third century before Christ recording "The gift of Bamha made by Dhamaguta."[1] Copper and lead coins and brass models have also been found at Kolhāpūr which show that about the first century after Christ it was under rulers who were kings or viceroys of the great Śatakarnī or Andhrabhritya dynasties of the North Deccan, one of whom bore the name Vilivayakura.[2] About A.D. 150 the Egyptian geographer Ptolemy mentions Hippokura as the capital of Baleocures who governed the southern divisions of the Deccan peninsula. Hippokura is probably Kolhāpūr[3] and Dr. R. G. Bhāndārkar identifies Baleocures with the Vilivayakura of the coins.[4] To about this time or a little earlier belong the Buddhist caves called Pānḍav Darā about six miles west of Panhala, and the Pavala caves near Jotibā's hill about nine miles north-west of Kolhāpūr. From the Āndhrabhṛtyas the district would seem to have passed to the early Kadambas (A.D. 500) whose chief capital was at Palasika or Halsi in Belgaum about a hundred miles south-east of Kolhāpūr. From the early Kadambas it would seem to have passed to the early and Western Cālukyas from about 550 to 760; to the Rāṣṭrakūtas to 973; from the Rāṣṭrakūtas to the Western Cālukyas, who

(A.D. 750).

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* This Chapter is contributed by Prof. R. V. Oturkar.

[1] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, XIV. 147-154, Bombay Archeological Survey, Separate Number 10, page 39.

[2] Journal Bom. Br. Roy. As. Soc. XIV. 152–153; Professor Bhandarkar's *Early History of the Deccan*, 17, 20.

[3] In fact it is Dr. Bhandarkar who identifies Hippokura with Kolhapur; but Dr. Katre, who has examined the problem linguistically is of opinion that Hippokura cannot be derived from Kolhapura (Social Survey of Kolhapur by N. V. Sohani, Vol II, page 2).

[4] Bertius' Ptolemy, 205; Deccan Early History, 20.

CHAPTER 2. History. EARLY HISTORY. (A.D. 750).

held the district, to about 1190 and while under them, to the Kolhāpūr Silāhārās (A.D. 942-1205), and to the Dēvagiri Yādavas upto the Musalman conquest of the Deccan about 1347. Of the early and Western Cālukyas no copper plates or stone inscriptions referring to Kolhāpūr proper have yet been found, Of the Rāṣṭrakūtās, two copper plate grants have been found, one at Sāmangaḍ fort four miles south of Gaḍhinglaj and *another at Sānglī town. The Sāmangaḍ grant*, which belongs to the seventh Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Dantidurga or Dantivarmā II, bears date *Śak* 675 (A.D. 733-54) and mentions that Dantidurga's victorious elephants ploughed up the bank of the river Rēvā or Narmaḍā, that he acquired supreme dominion by conquering Vallabha, and that he easily defeated the army of the Karnātak which was expert in dispersing the kings of Kāncī or Conjevēram and Kerala, the Colās, the Pāndyas, Śriharṣā, and Vajrāta[1]. The Sānglī copper plate grant belongs to the fourteenth king Govind V and is dated Śak 855 (A.D. 933-34)[2]. Of the Western Cālukyas who succeeded the Rāṣṭrakūtas in A. D. 973, there is a copper plate grant from Miraj, which belongs to king Jayasimha III. It was made by him in *Śak* 946 (A.D. 1024-25) at his victorious camp which, after warring against the mighty *Colās*, the lord of the city of Ćandramila and after seizing the possessions of the lords of the Seven Koṅkaṇs, was located near the city of Kolhāpūra or Kolhāpūr for conquering the northern country. There is an inscription of Somadeva in the Mahālakṣmī temple at Kolhāpūr, but it does not refer to Kolhāpūr itself. Next in point of time is a reference in a grant of the Kadamb king of Goā of (A.D. 1078). Therein the king Sastha is said to have gone to Kolhāpūr and worshipped the Goddess Mahālakṣmī. It was during Somēsvara regime that Colas under Rajēndra II invaded the Cālukyan territory as far north as Kolhāpūr and even claimed to have set up a pillar of victory at this place.[3]

Apart from the inscriptional evidence on the basis of which the early history of Kolhāpūr is being traced here, there are many references in Purāṇas which throw light both on the derivation of the word Kolhāpūr and the sacredness that the city has come to possess on account of the location of Ambābāī temple there. The Purānic evidence has to be utilised with great caution, but it would be wrong to keep it out of sight altogether. "According to Purāṇas," says Major Graham writing in 1854, "this tract of the country was originally called 'Kurwīr' (Karavira) from the goddess Mahālaksmi using her mace (Kur) in lifting her favoured retreat from the waters of the great deluge." According to another legend the name "Kolhāpūr" is derived from the story that a demon "Kolē" was defeated and killed on a hill

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[1] Fleet's Kanarese Dynasties, 32-33. This is the earliest known inscription in which the date is expressed by figures arranged according to the decimal system of notation.

[2] Jour. Bom. Br. Roy. As. Soc. IV. 97; Fleet's Kanarese Dynasties 37.

[3] Excavations at Brahmpuri by Dr. Sankalia and Dr. Dikshit pages 5-6.

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in the vicinity of Kolhāpūr[1]. *Karavīr-māhātmya* which was written in A.D. 1867 and is said to form part of *Padmapurāṇa* refers to the Goddess Mahālakṣmī. So does a section of the Markandēya purāna called Devimahatmya, which is said to be not older than A.D. 800. Another Purāṇā, *Harivamśu*, refers to Karavirpurā which is said to be the same as Kolhāpūr. It has been stated therein that Kriṣṇa, and Balarām in their fight against Jarāsandha at Mathurā had to go to the south and reached Karavīrpūra. The place was then ruled by Sṛgala who was a man of an evil disposition. The two brothers after some unsuccessful effort to settle elsewhere, gave battle to Sṛgala and killed him. The throne of Karvirpūra was given to his son Śakradeva. After waiting for some time the two brothers went back to Mathurā and they are said to have reached the distance within six days.

Among the literary references the most authentic and datable is that of Hemacandra (C.A.D. 1130), the famous Jain writer of Gujarāt. In his *Dvyasraya kavya* he refers to the gift sent by the lord of Kollapura, who was blessed by the goddesses Lakṣmī and Gaurī, for Prince Cāmunda, the son of Mūlarāja. If the account is a genuine record of events, then the antiquity of Kolhāpūr as a seat (pitha) of these goddesses can be placed at least one hundred years earlier than the time of Hemacandra himself (A. D. 1088-1173). In *Viśvakarma Śāstra* referred to by Hemādrī in his *caturvarga cintamaṇi* there is a reference to (Mahālaksmī of Kollāpūrā. Another work *Sarasvatīpurāṇa refers* to Kollāpūrā as a Mahāpitha (great seat) wherein the four goddesses Mahālakṣmī, Mahākalī, Kollā and Kankālā were installed in east, north, south and west of the place respectively by Jayasinha Siddharāja (C.A.D. 1093-1142). In Jain literature, Harisēnā's *Bṛhat Kathākośa*, composed in A.D. 931-932 at Vardhamānapūra, probably Waḍhawāṇ in Saurāśtra, refers in one of the stories to Kolladigiripattaṇa in Dakṣiṇāpaṭha. This seems to be no other than Kolhāpūr. As this mention occurs in a folk story recorded in the 10th century, the town must probably have been known by this name a couple of centuries earlier[2].

Fresh light has been thrown by recent excavations on the antiquity and the earliest habitation of this place. The report on the excavations states that the oldest village from out of which Kolhāpūr later developed into a great city was situated on a hill on the banks of the river Pancagangā. It is now known as Bramhapurī. "An inscription of the Kolhāpūra Silāhārā king Gandaraditya of *Śaka* 1048 (A.D. 1126-27) calls Kolhāpūrā a Mahātīrtha and refers to a temple Khedāditya (a Sun temple) at Bramhapurī." The statement in the inscription that Kolhāpūra or Bramhapurī was created by Brāhman might signify that the site of Bramhapuri was so old that its origin in course of time was attributed to

[1] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 1.

[2] The above account is based upon the Report on the 'Excavations at Bramhapuri' (1945–46) by Dr. H. D. Sankalia and Dr. M. G. Dikshit, pp. 1 to 3.

Brahma, the lord of creation himself. The inscription also mentions the capital Vallāvadagrāma, identified with Valavade, the site of the present Rādhānagarī, 27 miles south-west of Kolhāpūr[1]. *The years later in Śaka 1058 (A.D. 1135) the same king's patronage to a Jaina temple by the name Rupa-Nārāyana at Kolhāpūr is referred to in an inscription located in the same temple in the present (Śukrawār Peṭh).*

SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR.

SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR.

OF THE THREE SILAHARA HOUSES ruling in western India, the one ruling over the territories now comprised mostly of Sātārā and Beḷagañv districts and the former State of Kolhāpūr rose into prominence towards the end of the 10th century. Their rule extended over these territories for over a little more than two centuries. The Śilāhārās of Kolhāpūr, are described as Kashtatriyās in an inscription found at Kolhāpūr. The Kolhāpūr records also reveal that they hailed from the city of Tagara which is probably Ter about 95 miles from Paiṭhan (J.R.A.S. 1901, pp. 537). The predecessors of the Śilāhārā family seem to have migrated to Kolhāpūr from the territory round Ter.

The records of this house mention Kolhāpūr, Panhāḷā, fort and Valavade as capitals. There is a reference to the marriage of the Cālukya emperor Vikramāditya VI with Vidyādharā i.e. Silāhāra princess Ćandaladevī or Candralēkhā having taken place in her father's capital at Karthātak or modern Karād which suggests that Karād may have been their capital. However, as most of the records of this house are found in Kolhāpūr and as the Goddess Māhālakṣmī of Kolhāpūr was their deity, Kolhāpūr was the chief headquarters of their administration and Karād a provincial headquarter.

Genealogy of the Silahāras of Kolhāpūr.

- Jatiga I
  - Nauivarmana
    - Chandra
      - Jatiga II, c. 1000 to c. 1020 A.D.
        - Gonka
          - Marasimha, c. 1055 to c. 1075 A.D.; known year, 1058 A.D.
            - Guvala II c. 1075–1086 A.D.
            - Ballāla c. 1086–1095 A.D.
            - Bhoja c. 1095–1110 A.D.
            - Chandaraditya, c. 1110–1140 A.D.; known years, 1110, 1135 A.D.
              - Vijayāditya, c. 1140-c. 1175A.D.; known years, 1143, 1158 A.D.
                - Bhoja II, c. 1175-c 1215 A.D.; known years from 1179 to 1205 A.D.
        - Guvala I c. 1020-c. 1055
        - Kirtiraja
        - Chandraditya

[1] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 4. The exact identification of Vallavadagrama is controversial.

The first three personages in the above genealogy are mentioned only in the Talale plates of Gandarāditya and omitted by latter plates. This indicates that they had not achieved the full status of kings during the period (940 to 1000 A.D.). They are described as kings by their descendants only *when the latter attained a royal status.*

The first *ruling king of this* dynasty was *Jatiga II.*[1] His reign can be placed between 1000 to 1020 A.D. as his grandson King Marasinha is known to be ruling in 1058 A.D. The records of King Marasinha mention him as Tagranagara Bhopalaka and Pamaladurgadrisinha which indicate that he had defeated the Cālukyas who were formerly ruling over portions of Kolhāpūr State, and held the fort of Panhāḷā, thus establishing his rule over the area. During the reign of Gonkā, the Cālukyas conquered Kolhāpūr, under their king Jayasinha (before 1024 A.D.) The Śilāhārās had to submit to the Cālukyas in order to retain their kingdom. In the records, Gonkā is described as conqueror of Kahaḍa (Karad), Mairiage (Miraj) and Konkan. It is probable that Gonkā might have extended his rule over these territories as an agent for or with the consent of his over-lords. Gonkā was succeeded by his not very ambitious son Marasinha who in a copper plate grant describes the fort of Kilagila as his capital. Guvalā II succeeded his father in 1057. However, till 1110 the history of the Silāhāra family becomes complicated as all princes are mentioned as kings. On the death of Guvala in 1055 A.D., Bhallāḷa and Bhoja must have ruled the kingdom. Acugi II, the Sinda ruler of Yelburga, is said to have repulsed a certain Bhoja who can be only the Śilāhāra Bhoja. Bhoja was succeeded by Gandaraditya[2] who claims to be the undisputed king of Koṅkaṇ. During the later period of his regime, his son Vijayāditya defeated Jayakēsin II of Goa who had ousted the Śilāhāra ruler of Ṭhāna. Gandārditya executed various public works. At Irukudi in Miraj district he built a lake called Ganḍusamudra on the bank of which he built temples in honour of Buddha, Jinā and Śankara. Gandāraditya was succeeded by his son Vijayāditya. He joined in a conspiracy which was being formed by Bijjalā, a *minister of* his feudal Lord Tailā III, and in the revolution that ensued the Cālukya supremacy came to an end. The Sātārā plates of his son claim that Vijayāditya reinstated the fallen lords of Sthanaka and Goa. Vijayāditya had to fight hard to wrest independence from Bijjalā, the new sovereign but it was only after the death of Bijjalā that Vijayāditya could assume full sovereignty. The last of the family was Bhoja II.[3] He appears to have assumed the imperial titles from the beginning of his rule and was determined to retain the imperial glory so strenuously won by his father. His greatness is described in one of his own inscriptions as follows:—" fear of the edge of Bhoja's

[1] A. S. Altekar—The Silaharas of Western India, 1936, page 419.

[2] A. S. Altekar—The Silaharas of Western India, 1936, page 422–423.

[3] A. S. Altekar—*ibid*, page 424.

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sword caused Colaraja to take a spear [illegible] frightened other kings; but by the favour of [illegible] was worshipped by the kings; he was a Vikram of the [illegible] age". The fortunes of Bhoja however, received a crushing defeat at the hands of Singhaṇa, the king of the newly rising power of Yādavas in 1212 A.D. He had to run away in disgrace. The kingdom was annexed by the Yādavas and thus ended the career of the Śilāhāras of Kolhāpūr.

With the exception of what has been noted above in connection with Vijayāditya, the inscriptions of Gandarāditya and his successors give no historical details. But as regards the termination of their power, there has been no trace of any member of the family after Bhoja II; and, in *Śak* 1135 (A.D. 1213-14), Śrimukha *samvatsara*, the Devgiri-Yādav king Singhaṇa II was in possession of the country round Miraj, as is proved by his Khedrapūr inscription[1] which records the grant by him of the village of Kudāladāmavādā, the modern Kurundavād, in the Mirinji country; and as inscriptions of Singhaṇa II shortly after that date are found at Kolhāpūr itself[2], it would seem that Bhoja II was the last of his family and that he was overthrown and dispossessed by Singhaṇa II in or soon after *Śak* 1131 (A.D. 1209-10) Śukla *samvatsara*, which was the commencement of Singhaṇa's reign It is said that Singhaṇa defeated Silāhāra Bhoja at Umalvad in A.D. 1210.[3] This is borne out by one of Singhaṇa's inscriptions dated *Śak* 1160,[4] which speaks of him as having been "a very Garuda in putting to flight the serpent which was the mighty king Bhoja, whose habitation was Panhāḷā."[5] An inscription of *Śaka* 1194 indicates that the first king of the Yadava dynasty, Simhā, had his original seat of power near Kolhāpūr at Mirijaya (Miraj), while two earlier inscriptions of the kings Mahādeva and Nārāyaṇa, dated Śaka 1162 and 1172 respectively refer to the temple of Mahālakṣmī at Kolhāpūr and the district (Deśa or Viṣaya) of the same name. The Yādavās held the place and the adjacent country for at least 15 years more until *Śaka* 1187 (A.D. 1265) as is shown by an inscription of Mahādeva. It may be assumed that the territory remained part of the dominions of the Yādavs of Devagiri, till the very end of their rule (A.D. 1306-7) when it was conquered by Malik Kafur, though probably the connection of the rulers was merly nominal as the hilly part of the country was occupied by Marāṭhā *palegars*.

Before we turn to the history of Kolhāpūr in the Musalman period it is necessary to summarise the results of the legendary, *Puranic* and epigraphical accounts given so far. It would

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[1] Jour. Bom. Br. Roy. As. Soc. XII 7.

[2] Graham's Kolhapur, 425–436.

[3] *Ibid*, Sānkaliā and Dikshit, p. 5.

[4] P. S. and O. C. Inscription No. 112, I. 10-11.

[5] Pannala-nilara-prabala-Bhojabhupala-vyala-vidravana-Vihamgaraja.

[6] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 5 Mahadeva referred to last, must obviously have been the grandson of Simha or Sindhava.

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SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR.

appear that the site of the modern Kolhāpūr, long before the city grew up on the banks of the river known at present as Pancganga, was called "Kollapura", probably after the goddess Kollā referred to by *Sarasvatīpurāna* and *Karavir māhātmya*. She might have been so called because she was the deity of aboriginal tribes such as Kols or Kolis, mentioned in the legend cited by Graham. So from very early times the site came to be known as a seat of Mother Goddess (Matṛkāsthāna, Kṣetra, or pītha). It grew in importance when another goddess Mahālakṣmī, was installed in the city and when a temple was built there during the Rāstrākūṭa period (C.A.D. 800). The earliest epigraphical and literary records known hitherto cannot take us before the 9th century; the temple architecturally also is of about that period and not earlier. All the records call the city Kollāpūra and describe the goddess Mahālakṣmī. She is, however, regarded not as the consort of Vishnu but as the *avatār* or incarnation of Pārvatī, the consort of Śiva, and is more popularly called Ambābāi.[1] It is significant that *Harivamśā* makes no reference to Kolla or Mahālakśmī. It merely mentions Karvīrapura and it is difficult to say definitely that Karvīrpur refers to Kollhāpura and to none else. For, it might as well be Karhātaka which has the first syllable Kara. Kolhāpūr seems to have been hit upon, because the king Śrgāla of the city was turned into the Prākṛt Kolhā (from Sanskrit Kroṣṭṛ) and his city later called Kolhāpūra. It was *Karvīr-māhātmya* which definitely put the two together and identified Karvīrpura with Kollāpūra or Kolhāpūra. The original word was *Kol* or *Kolla* or *Kholla*. It may be a non-Aryan, Drāviḍian or Austric word. Kharē compares it with some other words like *Kolla*, *Kholla*, *Golla*, meaning low ground and suggests that it may be from Kannada.[2] It is pointed out that this interpretation would suit the topographical features of the place.[3]

Whatever the origin of the word and the place, it appears from the inscriptional evidence and archaeological excavations, that Kolhāpūr had so far two periods of prosperity. The first was under the Śatavāhanas, who turned it into a city having well built brick houses out of a modest village. After an interval of some centuries the Śilāhāras built magnificent temples there. These continued to be patronised by the Yādavas.[4] From the references in Bṛhaspatisūtra, which roughly belongs to the 12th or 13th century, it appears that the place was regarded as a Mahākṣētra by the Saktas; but Chakradhara the founder of the Mahānubhāva sect flourishing during this period has definitely banned any visit by his followers to Mātāpūr and Kolhāpūr.[5]

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[1] Khare's Marathi Mss. in print, *Maharashtrachi Panch Daivaten*.

[2] Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan III, p. 20-21.

[3] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 8.

[4] Khare's *Maharastrachi Panch Daivaten*—unpublished.

[5] This discussion as regards the derivation of the word 'Kolhapur' and its early site is taken from the report on the Excavations at Brahmapuri (Kolhapur) by Dr. Sankalia and Dr. Dikshit, p. 7-8.

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History.
Muslim Rule
(1347-1700).

Muslim Rule (1347-1700).

[1]Soon after the overthrow of the Yadavas by the Delhi Sultan Ala-ud-din Khalji and his general Malik Kafur, the eastern sub-division of Kolhāpūr came under the Bahāmanī kings of the Deccan (1347-1489). Whether Ala-ud-din or his general Malik Kafur ever went to or actually conquered Kolhāpūr is not known. Probably they did not. For, we are told that Bahaman Shah who soon after established the Bahāmanī kingdom, first at Gulbargā and later at Bidar, on his way back from Koṅkaṇ took Karahād and Kolhāpūr from their Hindu rulers.[2] During the reign of Ala-ud-din II (1435-1457), the tenth king of the dynasty, the Bahāmanī general Malik-ul-Tujar was persuaded in 1433 by a Raja in the Konkan belonging to the Śirke family whom he had captured and wished to convert to the faith of Islam, to make an attack on Shankar Rai the Raja of Khelṇā or Viśālgaḍ, whom the cunning Raja declared to be his rival and enemy. When the Musalman general hesitated on account of the difficult nature of the country, his objections were obviated by the proposed convert promising to act as guide, and the army accordingly set forth. For two days the march was beset by no difficulties, but on the third day the invaders were led by intricate paths through a wild savage country, to describe the horrors of which is exhausted the Muhammadan historian's stock of hyperbole. They were finally led into a dense forest surrounded on three sides by mountains, and their condition having been betrayed by their treacherous guide to the enemy, they were attacked at midnight and nearly 7,000, among whom was the general, are said to have been massacred.

Several years then elapsed before the Musalmans made a further effort against Viśalgaḍ. This disaster remained unavenged for nearly seventeen years. The Rajah of Sangamēśwar, Jakhurai, grew in power and strength. He was the master of a number of impregnable forts, chief of which were Khelṇā and Rangṇā. He maintained a fleet of nearly three hundred vessels, which as Gawan states in one of his letters preyed upon merchants and travellers with the result that "some thousands of Muslims were sacrificed at the altar of the greed of these people".[3]

The influence of Vijayanagar extended far to the north of Goa. The Bahāmaīs sought to consolidate their hold on Koṅkaṇ, capture Goa, and hasten the destruction of Vijayanagar

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[1] The history of the Musalman and Maratha periods was contributed to the first edition of this Gazetteer (1887) by Lieutenant Colonel E. W. West.

[2] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 5. There have been, however, no means of knowing exactly when this took place. An inscription at Miraj records the building of a mosque there in A.D. 1418, that is during the reign of Firuz Shah Bahamani (1397-1422). So the Muhammadans must have been established there for some time before that date, and the masters of Miraj would naturally hold the neighbouring districts which belonged to Kolhapur. There are said to be inscriptions recording the existence of a Musalman settlement called Nabipur on the hill of Panhala in 1376.

[3] Riyadul Insha Persian Text, p. 173-75.

which was their principal aim.[1] After the affairs with the kingdom of Malwa had been settled, the Bahāmanī Sultan Muhammad Shah decided to undertake a campaign against Koṅkaṇ. On his request Mahamud Gawan was appointed to lead the campaign. Followed by a large army he arrived at Kolhāpūr in 1470 A.D. and camped there. He sent for the detachments posted in the neighbouring districts. Asad Khan brought his troops from Junnar and Cakan. Kiśwar Khan arrived with his army from Dabhoḷ and Karad. With this army, Mahmud Gawan marched against the chiefs. As the country was full of forests he employed his men in cutting down the trees and clearing out roads.

When the chiefs learnt of the activities of Mahmud Gawan, they combined together and marching against him put up a determined resistance. Nearly fifty battles were fought between the armies of Islam and the chiefs.[2]

Mahamud Gawan laid siege to the fort of Khelṇā. The siege was considerably prolonged. Gawan was bent upon reducing the chiefs. As he heard that they had already approached influential persons in the capital, he agreed to the following terms:—

The fort of Rangṇā to be surrendered. An indemnity of Rs. 12,00,000 to be paid, the son of Jāku should arrive in the Bahāmanī camp.

The terms had been agreed upon when the chiefs realised that once the fort of Rangṇā was surrendered, with the help of their army posted in Cākan, Karhāḍ and other places, the Bahāmanīs would not only conquer Sangameśwar, but would be able to occupy a considerable territory belonging to Vijayanagar, they turned away from the agreement.

The result was that as the siege of Khelṇā dragged on, the rains set in. Gawan was forced to raise the siege and retire to cantonment for the rainy-season. He, however, ensured that no provision of any article should be allowed to reach the enemy's country.[3]

After the rains had subsided, Gawan marched against the fort of Rangṇā. The fort was strong and Gawan feared that it could not be conquered without considerable loss of men. He tried other methods. The enemy were offered "Firankish cloth, both studded with jewels, palanquins, Arab steed and arms of the most exquisite pattern.[4]"

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[1] Riyadul Insha Persian Text, p. 157-65.

[2] Burhani Masir, p. 115, Persian Text.

[3] Riyadul Insha Persian Text, Hyderabad, p. 249.

[4] Riyadul Insha Persian Text, Hyderabad, p. 122-23.

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History.
MUSLIM RULE
(1347-1700).

The fort of Rangṇā came into the possession of the Bahāmanīs, on 19th July 1470 A. D.

Gawan then marched to the fort of Macal. The fort was stormed and taken after a stiff fight. Gawan next turned towards the fort of Khelṇā. The Rājāh was hard pressed. He sent his own son to negotiate peace. The fort was surrendered on 10th November 1470. The Rājāh was left with a small territory to maintain himself. The rest of the possessions of Sangameśwar were occupied and placed under Bahāmani officers. The forts of Bulwara, Miriād and Nagar were also captured. The subjugation of Sangameśwar was completed on 12th December 1471. Gawan next marched to Goa which was annexed to the Bahāmanī kingdom on the 4th February 1472.

With the conquest of Goa, Gawan's campaign of Koṅkaṇ came to a close. This time the Bahāmanī occupation of the district was complete. No resistance to the Bahāmanīs is noted till the break-up of the kingdom.

The district was placed under the charge of Gawan's general Khush Qadam who already held the territory of Dābhoḷa and Karhād under him.

Kishwar Khan, for some unknown reason, transferred the charge of Goa to one Najm-ud-din Gilani, on whose death one of his officers named Bahadur Gilani in 1486 seized Goa and occupied Kolhāpūr as well as other places, being instigated to this course by Yusuf Adil Khan, then one of the nobles of the Bahāmanī king but who afterwards (1489-1510) became himself king of Bijāpūr. Bahadur Gilani, thus established in a position of semi-independence, availed himself of his command of the sea coast to send expeditions against Bombay and to seize vessels belonging to Gujarat. This conduct naturally excited the anger of Mahmud Begada (1458-1511) the king of the latter country, who in 1493 sent an embassy calling on the Bahāmanī king to punish his rebellious vassal, failing which the Gujarāt prince stated he would have to employ his own troops. This message aroused Mahmud Shah Bahmani II (1482-1518), who prevailed on his feudatories (so soon to become independent princes) to assist him and marched against Bahadur Gilani. The latter first took up his residence at Sankeśvar from whence he fled on the approach of the royal forces. His troops were then defeated near Miraj and that fort was surrendered to the king, on which Bahadur made offers of submission. He was promised more favourable terms than he could have expected, so much so that, conceiving that such generosity could only proceed from weakness, he rejected them and renewed hostilities. In these, however, he was so unsuccessful that he had to take refuge in Panhāḷā. Unfortunately for himself he quitted the fort, and after again negotiating and again rejecting the terms offered

to him, he was killed in an action with the royal troops and his estate or *jagir* including Kolhapur was bestowed upon Ain-ul-Mulk Gilani.[1]

In 1498, on the dissolution of the Bahāmanī kingdom and the elevation of its chief feudatories into the position of sovereign princes, Kolhāpūr and the adjoining country fell to the share of Bijāpūr. Ibrahim Adil Shah I (A. D. 1534) and II (A. D. 1580) took a lot of interest in Panhālā and its fortifications. This is shown not only by the numerous Persian inscriptions left by them but also by the architectural style of the monuments at the place. Kolhāpūr proper has little of Bijāpūr influence, nor was anything of that found in the excavations of 1945-46 referred to above.[2]

When the great Śivājī entered upon his work of creating a nation and founding of empire, the hill-forts in the Kolhāpūr territory were too favourably situated for his purpose not to attract his notice. It was not till 1659 however that Śivājī seems to have taken possession of Kolhāpūr and Panhālā. Earlier in 1631 when the Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan opened a campaign against Bijāpūr kingdom, one Sidi Raihem who had distinguished himself by defeating the Mughal general Mahabatkhan was invited by Adil Shah with great honour and the jagir of Kolhāpūr was conferred upon him.[3] In 1636 Kolhāpūr was captured by Khan Zaman, the Mughal general, but was afterwards restored to Bijapur.[4] In later years as Rustam Zaman was holding the districts of Miraj and Kolhāpūr as jagir under Adil Shah, Śivājī, after having overpowered Afzal Khan at Pratapagaḍā made a dash southwards and took possession of Panhāḷā[5] and its neighbour Pavangaḍa. From this *point d'appui* he reduced Rangṇā and Khelṇā or Viśāḷgada together with the other forts in the district above and below the Sahyadris. He soon made use of his new acquisitions. After defeating Rustum Zaman and Fazal Khan in a battle fought at Raibāg, a few miles east of Kolhāpūr, he assembled his forces at Viśāḷgaḍa and thence carried on operations in the Koṅkaṇ, where he acquired both territory and booty. Subsequently on 2nd March 1660 when the Bijāpūr army under Sidi Jauhar marched against him to avenge the slaughter of Afzal Khan and his army, Śivājī shut himself up in Panhāḷā whence, after enduring a four months' siege, he escaped by a characteristic stratagem and fled to Viśāḷgaḍa. His flight

[1] Contact of the Bahamani rulers in some form or other is actually revealed by the discovery of Bahamani coins in the upper strata of excavations recently carried out, as also of some articles, including highly finished bangles showing a strong Iranian Muslim cultural influence over the area. A small colony of artisans might have been staying in the mud houses built over the debris of similar houses of the Yadava Silahara period (Excavations at Brahmapuri by Dr. Sankalia and Dr. Dikshit p. 5-6).

[2] Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 6.

[3] Basatin Us-Salalin, Marathi version, History of Kolhapur and S. M. States Volume II, History of Bijapur kings in Marathi by B. P. Modak, p. 168.

[4] Badshahnama: Abdul Hamid Lahori, Volume I, Part II, p. 162.

[5] Shivkalin Patra-sar Sangrha No. 799.

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left Panhāḷā and Kolhāpūr territory in the hands of the Sidi.[1] Sidi's general Masaud pursued Śivājī towards Viśaḷgaḍa but his march was effectively stopped by the heroic opposition of Śivājī's trusted general Bāji Prabhu at Ghoḍakhinḍa, a difficult, mountain pass which is about eight miles west of Viśāḷgaḍa and which was tenaciously held by Bāji with a small band of his soldiers. Wave after wave of the Bijāpūr army vigorously attacked the gallant defenders for the purpose of forcing their way through the pass but Bāji Prabhu, mortally wounded and exhausted, heroically held his own till at last he heard the sound of the canon that was fired to announce Śivājī's reaching safe at Viśaḷgaḍa. The hero soon after breathed his last on the battle-field. The epic of Ghoḍakhinḍā which has since then been named as Pāvanakhinḍ (sacred pass) is rightly described the Thermopylae of Marāṭhā History. Śivājī could not hold out at Viśaḷgaḍa for long, as he had received news of Śaistā Khān's march towards Poona. Next year he seized an opportunity to plunder Rājāpūr, to attack Śṛngārpūr, and thence proceeding further south to swoop down on Mudhol, the jāgir of Bāji Ghorapaḍē, against whom he had long vowed vengeance for seizing his father Śahājī and delivering him to the Bijāpūr authorities. On 6th March 1673 Śivājī again captured Panhāḷā.[2]. The English factors at Bombay reported on 3rd September 1673, "Sevagees army also hath ransacked Hubelly, Callapore, and many other towns thereabout".[3] It appears Śivājī was campaigning in this part of the country during this and the subsequent two or three years. On 22nd October 1673 the English factors at Rājāpūr wrote to Surat, "The cotton yarne was sent unsorted (but all of a piece) occassioned by Sevajees Army approaching to Callipore".[4] After some time the Rajapur factors again reported in a letter to Bombay, dated 6th February 1674-75: "The news here is that some of Sevajee's forces have bin off Callapore which redeemed itself from their fury by a present giveing of 1,500 pagodas. Thence they went to a place called Sangam, which gave them 500 pagodas and thence is gone a roving.[5] Finally in 1675 Śivājī captured Kolhāpūr.[6] Some time after, on 7th August 1675 the English factors wrote to Bombay from Raybag, "The 30th ditto news brought us early in the morning that Sevajee's party at Callapore had seized the Governor there for the King. Many of the inhabitants were leaving the towne but Sevajee's soldiers kept all in with promise of faire usuage, so that the townes people are preserved in quiet and some security, Sevagee having to

[1] In carrying on this siege the English factory at Rajapur actively helped Sidi Jauhar and sold him some canons etc. In this connection one Mr. Revington, a factor of the East India Company at Rajapur had gone to the Sidi's camp and had stayed for some time at Kolhapur (English Records on Shivaji 1659-82, Volume I, page 21).

[2] Shivakalin Patra-sar-sangraha, Volume III, p. 195

[3] English Records on Shivaji, Volume I, p. 281 (1930).

[4] English Records on Shivaji, Volume II, p. 17.

[5] *Ibid*, p. 33.

[6] *Ibid*, p. 41.

guard it report speaks about 2,000 men, and the Moor Governor that was in it is carried to Purnallo Castle, where he as yet remains a prisoner".[1] The effects of Śivājī's campaigns in this part of the country on trade are thus referred to in a letter, dated 22nd January 1677 from Bombay to the Court of Directors of the East India Company. "By reason of the lamentable devastation which Sevagee hath made in Raybag, Hantene, Callapore, etc., marks of trade and the excessive price and want of cotton in these parts noe-callicoes have bin procurable this year, nor will any Europe goods sell.[2]"

Towards the end of his reign Śivājī used Panhāḷā as a place of confinement for his eldest son Sambhājī who was there when his father died in 1680. On hearing the news of his father's death, Sambhājī released himself from imprisonment and planned to direct the affairs of the State from Panhāḷā; but he soon found that he could not check the rival forces at Raigaḍa which had made Rājāram the successor of Śivājī. Sambhājī therefore left Panhāḷā, reached Raigaḍa, overcame all opposition and got himself coronated at that place in January 1681.[3] Throughout his reign he was at war with the Moghuls. In 1683 Ajam Shah the Moghul Prince marched as far as Kolhāpūr, but Hambirarao Mohite, Sambhājī's general, drove him off.[4] Having failed to curb the Marāṭhās, the Moghuls diverted their forces for an attack on Bijāpūr. Sambhājī thereupon sent in 1683 Kavi Kuleśa, popularly known as Kābji Kaluṣā, his trusted minister to Panhāḷā, wherefrom the Marāṭhā forces sallied forth and continuously harassed the Moghuls. In 1688, the Śirkes who had deserted Sambhājī and joined the Moghuls on account of a fierce family feud attacked Kaluṣā and compelled him to retreat towards Khelṇā or Viśalgaḍ for safety. Thereupon Sambhājī quickly rushed from Raigaḍ, defeated the Śirkes, and joined his minister at Khelṇā[5] (1688). After waiting for some time there, the two started towards Raigaḍa. Halting at Sangmeśwar on their way they threw off all considerations of caution and gave themselves up to merry making. In the meanwhile the Moghul general Shaikh Nazam, who had received information as to where Sambhājī was, followed him with a detachment and seized him before he had any idea that there was an enemy in the neighbourhood. The Marāṭhā king who was caught completely unawares under the orders of Aurangzeb, was mercilessly tortured and killed.

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[1] English Records on Shivaji, Volume II, p. 62.

[2] *Ibid*, p. 108. This and the preceding citations are from the Social Survey of Kolhapur City, Volume II, by N. V. Sovani, p. 5-6.

[3] Jedhe Shakavali Shiva-charitra-pradipa, p. 31.

[4] *Ibid*, p. 32.

[5] *Ibid*, p. 34.

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The death of Sambhājī and the capture of the infant son of the latter by the Moghuls made Rājāram, the second son of Śivājī, the de facto Rājā of the Marāṭhās. While he carried on operations in the south he left his family at Viśaḷgaḍa in comparative security as, though Panhāḷā had been speedily *taken by Aurangzeb's forces, yet Viśaḷgaḍa and Rangṇā with the adjacent country held out still under Ramchandrapant whose family later on held the jāgir of Bāvaḍā and who and whose descendants held the office of Pant Amatya in the* Aṣṭapradhān system (Ministry of eight Ministers) in Kolhāpūr.[1] The tenure of Panhāḷā, too, by the conquerors was but temporary as the place was ere long retaken by Parasurām Trimbaka in 1692. Panhāḷā was again besieged by the Moghuls but the siege was raised in 1693 by the combined attack of three Marāṭhā forces under Rāmacandra Pant, Śankarāji Pandit and Dhanāji Jādhav.[2] The Moghul operations against the fort, however, continued in a desultory fashion till 1696. After his escape from Jinji, Rājārām again visited Viśālgaḍ; but during the latter part of his reign the most important operations he was engaged in were all carried on in the country situated to the north of Kolhāpūr, and his death took place in 1700 at the fort of Sinhagaḍ near Poona, a month before Sātāra, then besieged by the Moghuls, fell into the hands of Aurangzeb.

MARATHA RULE
Shivaji II
(1700–1712).

MARATHA RULE (1700-1818).

ON THE DEATH OF RAJARAM HIS ELDER WIDOW Tārābāi, who was the mother of his eldest son Śivājī placed the latter then a child only four years old[3] on the throne and assumed charge of the administration, aided therein by the Pant Amātya, the Senāpati,[4] and Paraśurām Trimbak whom she made Pratinidhi. Her first act was to place in confinement her husband's second widow Rajasbai with her son Sambhājī, a child only one year old.[5] Her position was a most difficult one, as shortly after Rajaram's death, Aurangzeb in person moved against Kolhāpūr[6] and besieged Panhāḷā and Viśāḷgaḍa both of which places he took. His siege of the former place possesses a special interest as, while he was engaged on it in 1701, he received Sir William Norris, an ambassador sent to

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[1] In imitation of their progenitor Shivaji, the Kolhapur princes appointed eight chief ministers known as the *Ashtapradhan*. The Pant Amatya of Bavda and the Senapati of Kapsi were later on the only representatives of the *Ashtapradhans* in Kolhapur.

[2] *Ibid*, p. 37.

[3] *ibid* 38.

[4] Sidoji Ghorpade, a member of one of the oldest and most distinguished Maratha families, had been made Senapati by Sambhaji, and received the *jagir* of Kapsi, which *continued to vest in his family till the abolition of all jagirs* in Bombay State in 1956.

[5] *ibid* 66.

[6] In the course of excavations recently carried out by Sankalia and Dikshit a coin of Aurangzeb was found near Kolhapur. It is very likey that Aurangzeb might have his temporary camp in this place while he was engaged in the siege of Panhala. (Sankalia and Dikshit, p. 6).

him on behalf of the new East India Company, with letters from the King of England. The annalist of the East India Company gives a very elaborate account of the ambassador's procession on the occasion of his reception on the 28th of April by the Emperor, but refrains from giving historical information of any importance. We only learn that Sir William Norris presented 200 gold *mohars* to Aurangzeb, that his negotiations on behalf of the new Company were unsuccessful, and that he finally took his leave of the Great Moghul on the 5th of November. Aurangzeb, however, was ere long called away by the state of his affairs towards Ahmednagar and the effects of his absence were soon perceived. The Pant Amātya shortly after the Emperor's departure took Panhāḷā by escalade, whereupon Tarabai took up her abode in it and the place was for many years the virtual capital of Kolhāpūr. The Marathas met with equal success elsewhere and the Moghal power in that part of the country was annihilated; but after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 a stroke of policy was effected by his successor which checked their onward progress by the divisions it excited among them. This was the release of Śāhū, the son of Sambhājī, who was encouraged to assume his place as head of the nation. He accordingly sent letters and messengers to the leaders of the Marāthās, calling on them for assistance and announcing his approach. Tārābāī, however, was not disposed readily to give up the authority she had so long held or to see her son's claim to the sovereignty set aside. She therefore affected to treat Śāhu as an impostor,[1] and was supported in her resistance by the leading men of the Marāṭhās who led an army against the grandson of Śivājī.

SAMBHAJI II (1712-1760).

Sambhaji II
(1712-1760).

Śāhū however, managed to win over to his cause one of the ablest of the generals opposed to him, Dhanājī Jādhav,[2] after which he defeated Tārābāī's forces at Khēd on the banks of the Bhīmā and in 1708 obtained possession of Sātārā where he formally seated himself on the throne. He pressed on operations in the following year against Kolhāpūr and at first met with considerable success, Panhāḷā and Viśālgaḍā falling into his hands and Tārābāi being obliged to fly into the Koṅkaṇ. After this success he withdrew his forces in order to attack the Pant Saciv, but no sooner were they withdrawn than the energetic Tārābāi returned and recovered Panhāḷā. All her hopes, however were frustrated in 1714 on account of a successful plot against her by Rājasbāi her co-wife with the object of raising herself and her son Sāmbhājī to power. She was captured and placed in confinement together with

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[1] In a letter of 17th September 1707, Tarabai argues that the kingdom of Shivaji was destroyed in the days of Sambhaji and her husband Rajaram founded a new State to which Shahu, Sambhaji's son could have no claim. Again Shivaji intended to make Rajaram and not Sambhaji his successor, therefore Sambhaji's son could have no claim to his kingdom (Sardesai's Balaji Vishwanath, p. 36).

[2] Sardesai, Marathi Riyasat, Peshwa Balaji Wishwanath, p. 40.

her son Śivājī II[1] and Sambhājī, was placed on the gādi, the administration being conducted by Ramchandra, the Pant Amātya of Bāvdā. The eldest son of the Pratinidhi joined the cause of Sambhājī, which was further strengthened by the support of Sarjērāv Ghātge of Kāgal. The dissensions between the descendants of Śivājī were actively fomented by Chin Klich Khān, the first Nizām, whose policy it was to weaken the Marāthās and who threw his influence into the scale on the side of Sambhājī. On the other hand, Śāhū was assisted by the genius of the first Peśvā Bāḷāji Vishvanāth and the Pratinidhi[2] and was favoured by the Moghal Emperor whose feudatory he professed to be. It is not necessary to follow here in detail the fluctuations of the struggle that continued for years between the Kolhāpūr and Sātārā parties. The latter, while holding their own against Kolhāpūr, directed their attention chiefly to affairs in the north; but in 1727 a crisis was brought about by the ill-judged action of the Nizām, who claimed to be arbiter in the dispute between Śāhū and Sambhāji and sequestrated some territory belonging to the former pending its settlement. Śāhū and the Peśavā on this directed their whole power against the Nizām and his ally Sambhājī. The Nizām was soon obliged to give up the cause of Sambhājī and the latter brought down the vengeance of Śāhū on his head by rejecting the overtures made to him; after which, when moving with an army towards Sātārā, he was utterly defeated by the Pratinidhi and driven to Panhāḷā with the loss of all his baggage. Tārābāī and her daughter-in-law Bhavānibāi, the widow of Shivaji II, were taken prisoners on this occasion and confined in the fort of Sātārā. Sambhājī by this defeat was so reduced that he was obliged to come to terms, and on 26th April 1731 a treaty was concluded at Varṇā by which he gave up all claims to territory north of the Varṇā river, his sovereignty being acknowledged over the tract of country lying between the rivers Varṇā and Kriśṇā on the north-east and the Tungabhadrā on the south, and over the part of the Konkaṇ between Sālsi and Ankolā. After the conclusion of the treaty, the two cousins, Śāhū and Sambhājī met each other with great ceremony and with expressions of affection towards each other. It does not appear that the whole of the tract of country thus defined was at any time in the possession of the Rājās of Kolhāpūr; and reading between the lines of the treaty the real purport of the instrument seems to have been that the Kolhāpūr Rājās might make what conquest they liked to the south of the Varṇā, provided they kept that river as their northern boundary and did not cross the Kṛśṇā on the east. Sambhājī and his successors indeed seem to have made hardly any attempt to assume the sovereignty of the whole of

[1] Shivaji II died of Small-pox in 1727 (Sardesai's Balaji Vishwanath, p. 75).

[2] Both of these officials died, before matters were finally settled, and were succeeded, the first by his son Bajirav and the other by his second son Shripatrav, the eldest son having adhered to the cause of Sambhaji and become the founder of family of the Pratinidhi, the chief of Vishalgad in Kolhapur.

the districts thus made over to them, and some thirty-four years after the date of the treaty the Peśwā granted to the Patvardhan family a large saranjām, a very considerable portion of which was situated in these very districts. The effect of the treaty was to isolate Kolhapur from all that lay to the north of the territory and consequently from participation in the stirring events that subsequently took place there.

Before twenty years had elapsed from the date of the treaty, there was a chance of both the branches of Shivaji's family uniting under one head. Śāhū, the Raja of Satara, had lost his only son, and being now advanced in years it became incumbent on him to adopt an heir. Nothing could have been more desirable if Śāhū would have thought of adopting the cousin Śambhājī and naming him as his successor. Notwithstanding the earlier wars between them, the two cousins used to meet each other occasionally, after the partition treaty of 1731. Their relations were formal if not cordial. The Peśwā on the whole was favourably inclined towards the union of Satara and Kolhāpūr. Even Rāni Sakwārbāi who was taking an active part in the diplomatic intrigues of the palace and who was ever opposed to the Peśwā, welcomed such a step. But Tārābāī who had been all the while carefully watching the course of events was quick to see that there was a golden opportunity for her to fish in the troubled waters. She declared that she had a grandson Ramarājā,[1] Shivāji's son, born at Panhāḷā whose life she had managed to save by the exchange of another infant born at the same time. Because of the probable danger to his life the prince's existence was kept a secret by getting him conveyed out of the fort of Panhāḷā and sent to a sister of Bhavānibāī, who brought him up. The exchanged infant, said Tārābāi, soon expired and as it was widely taken to be the death of the prince, his existence elsewhere remained a well guarded secret. Such an assertion of course did not meet with universal credence. Even Śāhū at first hesitated to put implicit faith in the story, but after satisfying himself with some proof and words of faith, he came to be inclined towards accepting the story as true. It was, however, loudly asserted by the partisans of Sambhājī that the so-called son of Śivājī was spurious, and arrangements were made to oppose his claims to Sātārā. While this discussion was going on, Śāhū, (1749), lay on his death-bed constantly attended by his wife Sakwārbāi, who was opposed to Rāmarāja. The Peśwā however, caught an opportunity to obtain a secret interview with Śāhū, whose inclinations he promised to honour and give effect to The Rājā therefore signed a note empowering the Peśavā to govern the whole Marāṭhā empire on condition of his not entertaining the claims of Sambhājī and keeping up the dignity of the house of Śivājī in the person of Rāmarāja. Tārābāī's grandson, and his

[1] His real name was Rajaram but as Tarabai, according to Hindu custom would not utter the name of her husband, she transposed the terms and made it Ramaraja.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE Sambhaji II (1712-1760).

descendants.[1] The document further gave the Peśwā power over the Rajamaṇḍala (i.e., the Maratha jagirdars,) though Kolhāpūr was, tacitly, not included in it.

The question whether Rāmarājā was or was not the son of Śivājī and whether the deed of cession to the Peśwā was or was not really executed by Śāhū, is one that has been much discussed; and the historians Mount stuart Elphinstone and Grant Duff[2] take opposite sides, the former doubting and the latter maintaining the genuineness of both heir and deed. Subsequent research in Marāṭhā history had tended to support Grant Duff in this controversy.[3] It is sufficient to state that Rāmrājā was eventually acknowledged by the Marāṭhās as the adopted son and successor of Śāhū.

In 1760 Sambhājī of Kolhāpūr died without issue and his widow Jijābāī, according to his wishes, selected for adoption the son of Śahājī Bhonslē of Kānvāt, a collateral descendant of the house of Śivājī. This step, however, was strongly opposed by the Peśwā, whose interest ever was to unite the Sātārā and Kolhāpūr families and possibly to act as the Peśwā on behalf of both. Jijābāī, however, managed to obtain possession of the boy; and the Peśwā, unwilling to offer open opposition to an arrangement so much in accordance with Hindu feeling, religion, and custom, acknowledged the adoption which he could not prevent and did so with as good a grace as possible, by presenting the usual honorary dresses and gifts. The boy thus adopted received the name of Śivājī and during his long minority the Kolhāpūr State was administered by his adoptive mother Jijābāī.[4]

This period was a disastrous one for Kolhāpūr. The Peśwā, in order to keep it in check, established the powerful family of Paṭwardhans on the eastern frontier with a large *saranjām* sufficient for the maintenance of 8,000 horse. Afterwards, irritated at the communication kept up by the Kolhāpūr court with the Nizām, he deprived the State of the two districts of Chikoḍi and Manoli, which he bestowed on the Patvardhans. He restored them, it is true, afterwards but the example he set was followed and the districts in question constantly changed hands during the succeeding fifty years. Then raids in the sea increased to such an extent that in 1765 an expedition was sent from Bombay against the maritime possessions of Kolhāpūr and Fort Augustus or Mālavan was taken by

[1] Sardesai's New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 272-273. The text of the note is published in *Kavyetihas Sangraha*.

[2] Elphinstone's History of India, 4th Edition, 642; Grant Duff II, pp. 22-25.

[3] *See* Rajwade's Preface to Volume 1 of the sources of Maratha History, pp. 40-45.

[4] It is said that on the death of Sambhaji the Peshwa intended to confiscate a large portion of Kolhapur, leaving a small *jahagir* for his widow Jijabai; but the timely action of Jijabai saved the situation. Subsequently the disaster of Panipat completely distracted his attention from Kolhapur affairs (V. V. Khare's History of Ichalkaranji State. pp. 89-90.)

the English.[1] In the following year, a treaty was entered into, the first one between the East India Company and Kolhāpūr, in which it was stipulated that the fort should be restored to Kolhāpūr on payment by the latter of £38,289-12. (Rs. 7,50,000) to the Company. It was further agreed that the English should be allowed to establish a factory in the neighbourhood of Mālvan and should have full freedom of trade. Other commercial privileges were conceded, provision was made against piracy and wrecking, and the treaty concludes with the following fourteenth article, which shows a somewhat astute diplomacy on the part of the English: "Mahārāja, Jijābāi, the Rānī, agrees, should the Honourable Company be attacked and they should require her assistance, to provide them with what troops they may want, they supplying them with provisions only. The Honourable Company in the like manner agrees to assist the Rānī should it be convenient for them."

The name of the Regent Jijābāi has terrible associations connected with it in Kolhāpūr. It is related that one night under her manifestation as the Goddess Kāli, Sītā, appeared to her with the intimation that to secure prosperity the shrine of the Goddess at Panhāḷā, where Jijābāī always resided, should be kept constantly wet with human blood. The intimation was obeyed but too implicitly, and parties sent out by the Regent at night constantly scoured the neighbourhood of Panhāḷā to procure fresh victims, who were sacrificed at a spot in the inner fort which is still pointed out with horror.

Śivajī III (1760-1812).

Shivaji III
(1760–1812).

In 1772 Jijābāī died, leaving her adopted son still a minor and surrounded by enemies. The Peśwā's troops were encamped on the Kṛṣṇā and committed great devastation in the eastern districts of the Kolhāpūr territory: Konhērrāv Trimbak, one of the Patvardhan Saranjāmdārs, was making raids from the same quarter, while the Pant Pratinidhi of Aundh was threatening hostilities from the north. Yaśvantarāv Śinde, the minister in whose hands the administration then was, showed considerable energy. He entered into negotiations with Haidar Ali of Mysore, with the object of getting assistance from that prince and punishing the Peśwā Mādhavarāv by getting his uncle and rival Raghunātharāv installed in his place, at the same time that he induced the Peśwā to withdraw his troops from the Kṛṣṇā and routed the Paṭvardhan. He suffered, however, a signal defeat at the hands of the Pratinidhi, and was so weakened that Konhērarāv again overran the country and in 1776 laid siege to Kolhāpūr for a period of seven days. "On this occasion he burned and

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[1] The Kolhapur pirates were known in Bombay as the Malvanis from the name of the port. Those from Sawantvadi were termed *Kempsawnts*, a corruption of the name of the Sar Desai Khem Savant.

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pillaged the celebrated Math (Monastery) which was situated in the suburbs, when a rich spoil was taken, the property of the affluent inhabitants of the city, who trusting to the protection of the holy sanctuary had stored their most valuable effects within the sacred walls".[1] The tide then turned, again for a time. Instigated by the Court at Poona the chiefs of Kāgal, Bāvaḍā, and Viśālgad in 1777 rose in revolt against the minister, but Yāśvantrāv Śindē, aided by Haidar Ali with money, defeated them without difficulty and then turned his arms against the officer deputed by the Peśwā to recover Chikoḍi and Manoli, whom he drove out of those districts. This success, however, proved in the end disastrous to Kolhāpūr as it brought the Poona Court to see the necessity of strenuous efforts, and Mahādjī Śinde was accordingly despatched with a large force against Kolhāpūr in 1778. The Darbar of that State applied hastily to Haidar Ali who promised to send a force of 25,000 men, but these reinforcements did not arrive in time so that the Kolhāpūr authorities were obliged to come to terms with Mahādjī and to agree to make a payment of Rs. 15 lakhs for which Chikoḍi and Manoli were given as security. The Kolhāpūr Rājā was further bound to abstain from plundering the adjacent districts and from receiving and harbouring rebels against the Peśwā.

The troubles of Kolhāpūr were, however, by no means over, for the Paṭwardhans continued hostilities on the eastern frontier, while on the south-west the Sardēsaī of Savantvāḍī fomented and stirred up rebellion and then assumed an openly hostile attitude.[2] He was defeated at Rangṇā by the contingents of the Viśalgaḍ and Bavadā chiefs, but the mutiny he had excited among the garrison of the strong hillfort of Bhudargaḍ in the south of Kolhāpūr was not so easily suppressed and that fort was given up by the mutineers to Paraśurām Bhāū, the greatest of the Paṭvardhans, who had previously taken Akevat and Sirol towns on the north-east frontier of Kolhāpūr.

At this juncture Yaśvantrāv Śinde, died in 1782, and was succeeded by Ratnākar Pant who persuaded the young Rājā to leave his seclusion at Panhāḷā, which thenceforth ceased to be the seat of the court, and put himself at the head of the army which was to march against the Sāvantvāḍī chief. The expedition was successful, the Sardesai being compelled to sue for peace and pay the arrears due to Kolhāpūr. The title of Himmat Bahādur, bestowed on him for his services on this occasion as a member of the Cavāṇ family or clan, is still held by his descendants.

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[1] Graham: Statistical Report on the Principality of Kolhapur (1854) p. 498.

[2] The feud with Savantvadi arose partly from disputes about villages in the Malvan sub-division which were claimed both by that State and Kolhapur. It was exacerbated at this time by jealousy on the part of the Kolhapur court at the honours obtained for the Sar Desai by Mahadji Shinde, whose niece he had married and who was all powerful at Delhi. The distinctions that gave rise to so much jealousy were the title of Raja Bahadur and the privilege of using the *morchals* or peacock's feather fans.

After his return to Kolhāpūr which now became his capital the Rājā had to face a new trouble. The Gaḍakaris[1] of the fort of Bāvaḍā followed the example of their brethren at Bhudargaḍ and revolted in consequence of some real or supposed interference with their rights. The Rājā proceeded in person to suppress the revolt; but the fort, which is situated on a precipitous hill rising directly from the Koṅkaṇ and only joined to the main line of the Sahyādris by a narrow passage, was found to be impregnable. He was obliged to withdraw his forces and grant the terms demanded by the mutineers; but shortly afterwards, when the Gaḍkaris of Pavangaḍ were stirred up by the Sāvantvāḍi chief to follow the example of revolt, he was more successful. He marched at once against the fort, which was surrendered immediately and finding there ample proof of the part played by the Sardesai he resolved to punish the latter by invading his territories. This expedition also was successful and districts were added for a time to Kolhāpūr yielding a revenue of Rs. 1½ lakhs per annum.[2] While the Rājā was engaged on this foray the minister Ratnākar Pant was equally successful in suppressing a revolt raised by some disaffected chiefs.

The State thereafter enjoyed comparative peace for some years. During this period raids on the sea which though checked had never been totally extinguished, revived and became more rife than ever. So much annoyance was caused to the English by this that in 1789 they meditated an attack on the States of Sāvantvāḍi and Kolhāpūr from where they often originated, but hesitated about attacking the latter, because they fancied it was subject to the Peśvā with whom they were anxious not to embroil themselves. Nānā Phaḍnavisa (1774-1800), the famous minister of the Peśwā, informed the Rājā of the designs of the English and offered to help him. The Rājā at first seemed inclined to accept the mediation of the Puṇē Court Finding, however, that there was little immediate danger, as the English were about to engage in a war with Tipu Sultan (1782-1799), he broke off the negotiations, and attacks on English ships flourished more than ever while the English were occupied with the Mysore war. As soon as it was over. however, they made vigorous preparations for the suppression of such attacks and the Rājā to avoid hostilities was obliged to sue for peace and agree to the terms offered. The second treaty between Kolhāpūr and the English was then, in 1792, concluded. The former State was bound by it to pay an outstanding balance due to the English and accepted as a favour the remission of the interest due on the same. Immediate payments were made as compensation for the losses

[1] In each fort in the Maratha country a permanent garrison was kept up composed of men called *Gadkaris*, for whose maintenance lands were assigned which they held on condition of service. These men were always very tenacious of their real or fancied rights, and ready to resent any infringement of them by taking advantage of their secure position.

[2] They were restored in 1792 through the intervention of the Peshwa and Sindia.

suffered by the British merchants at the hands of the Kolhāpūr raiders and further payments on the same account were arranged for, as a security for which the establishment of an English factory at Mālvaṇ was stipulated for, to be temporary or permanent at the option of the British. The latter were further authorised to establish a factory at Kolhāpūr itself and the Rājā agreed to furnish the provisions required for the sepoys of both factories till the articles of the treaty were fully executed. The practical results of these arrangements did not prove to be very satisfactory to the British, as in the year immediately following the treaty there were the same complaints as of old against the Kolhāpūr Rājā, and sea raids were not suppressed till the latter was deprived of his maritime possessions.

The close of the Mysore campaign brought another difficulty to Kolhāpūr. Paraśurāmbhāu, Paṭavardhana, who had taken part in the campaign as an ally of the English, on his return to his *saranjām* commenced a series of attacks on the eastern districts of the State and committed great devastation. In one of these excursions the Paṭvardhan's troops under Paraśurām's son Rāmachandra were met at Altā, a town about fifteen miles to the east of Kolhāpūr, by the Kolhāpūr forces under the Rājā in person and totally defeated, Rāmachandra with his principal officers being captured and taken to Kolhāpūr. They were not only kindly treated there, but were almost immediately set at liberty and sent back to their homes with presents and dresses of honour. If this policy was intended to bring about peace with Paraśurāmbhāu it entirely failed. Stung at the humiliating defeat his troops had undergone, that leader renewed hostilities and carried them on with such vigour and skill that he succeeded in penetrating to the capital, which he closely invested. At last he was induced to raise the siege on the Rājā agreeing to pay Rs. 3 lakhs and making over hostages for the payment of the sum. However successful Paraśurāmbhāu was at the time, he soon found reason to repent for having made the Kolhāpūr Rājā a deadly enemy, as the current of events in a very short time brought to the latter an opportunity of revenge which was not neglected. A quarrel took place between Nānā Phaḍnavisa and Paraśurāmbhāu; and while the latter was engaged at Puṇē, in the thick of the intrigues that followed the suicide of Savāi Mādhavarāv Peśavā and ended finally in the accession of Bājirāv, the Rājā was incited by the minister to attack the districts of his enemy, which were thus left undefended. Śivājī was not slow to take the hint and further perceived clearly what an opening was offered to him by the dissensions that paralysed the Peśavā's power. Calling out the entire force of his State he recovered the fort of Bhudargaḍ which was still in hands of Paraśurāmbhāu and then carrying the war into the latter's country burnt the town of Tāsgāñv and his palace there. He further repossessed himself of the districts of Chikoḍi and Manoli which during the late disturbances had fallen into the hands of the Nipāṇikar,

the chief of Nipāṇī some thirty miles to the south of Kolhāpūr, who had recently raised himself from the position of a humble Dēsāi to that of a powerful leader. Encouraged by these successes the Rājā carried his arms to the south, took the fort of Jamakhaṇḍi from Nānā Phaḍnavisa and sent his forces to plunder and levy tribute in the Karnātak.

While these events were going on, the Rājā of Sātārā made an attempt to throw off the yoke of the Peśavā, but was defeated by Parśurāmbhāu. His brother Citur Singa, however, escaped and collected some troops, with which he joined the Kolhāpūr Rājā. Parśurāmbhāu and Nānā Phaḍnavis having now become reconciled, the Court at Poona was able to turn its attention to affairs in the south and the Paṭvardhana chief was despatched to hold the Kolhāpūr Rājā in check. He met the latter at a village called Pathankudi in Chikoḍi and an engagement ensued in which Parśurāmbhāu was killed in 1799. This event led to fresh exertions on the part of the Peśavā and Rāmchandra, the son of the fallen chieftain, was sent against Kolhāpūr with a large force, his own troops being reinforced by those of the Puṇē feudatories and five of Sindia's disciplined battalions under the command of a European officer, a Major Brownrigg. The invaders met with a check at first, but soon rallied and regularly invested the town of Kolhāpūr. The siege lasted for two months; but though the besiegers were reinforced by the Peśavā's general Dhonḍopant Gokhalē and a wide breach was made in the fortifications, all attempts to carry the place by storm failed. The siege was at last raised in consequence of an intrigue at Puṇē. Nānā Phaḍnavisa had died and Sindia at the instigation of his favourite Sarjērāv Ghāṭge[1] who was a Kolhāpūr subject and with the connivance of the Peśavā Bājīrāv who was a deadly enemy of the Paṭavardhans, resolved to take possession of the *saranjām* belonging to that family and ordered his troops at Kolhāpūr to act accordingly.

Rāmchāndrarāv thus deserted and betrayed had no option but to fly and his districts were taken by his quondam allies. The siege was thus raised and the Rājā, who had been at Panhāḷā while it was going on, entered the city in triumph. The besiegers are said to have suffered a loss of 3,000 killed and wounded on the day they attempted to storm the town.[2]

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[1] Sakharam Sarjerav Ghatge was rewarded for the service done to Kolhapur on this occasion by the grant of the Kagal estate, though he was the representative of the younger branch of the family in whose possession it had been more or less continuously for many years. Sarjerav Ghatge's career is a matter of history. Sindia married his daughter the well known Baljabai; and his son, who received the title of Hindurav, resided entirely at Gwalior, and seldom, if ever, visited Kagal. When Sakharam Ghatge received the grant of the Kagal estate a smaller appanage was conferred on the representative of the senior branch of the Ghatge family. The chief distinction of this branch is their frequent intermarriages with the royal family of Kolhapur.

With the general abolition of all *jagirs* in Bombay State in 1956, these *jagirs* have disappeared.

[2] Among the killed were some of the European officers of Sindia's forces. The tombstones over the graves of a French and a Spanish officer, are still extant. The former bears the inscription 'Jules Romeu, ne 1768 a Catte on Languedoc. Comman un Battalion de l'armee de Sindia. Tue aux tranches de Colapour, 23 Mars 1800.

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One of the first steps taken by the Rājā after the siege was raised was to retaliate on the Paṭvardhans. The Nipāṇi chief who was in alliance with Sindia had unsuccessfully besieged the fort of Nerli in the Miraj *saranjām*, but on troops being sent to his assistance from Kolhāpūr the place fell. Kolhāpūr indeed seemed just then to be exceptionally fortunate. Sarjērav Ghāṭgē, who came from Puṇē with the draft of the treaty that was to be entered into with Sindia, brought with it two standards that had been taken by the Pratinidhī of Karhāḍ from Kolhāpūr and also the formal consent of the Peśavā to the resumption by the Rājā of the districts of Cikodi and Manoli. The happiness of the prince was completed by the birth of a son and heir, who received the name of Sambhu but was generally known as Ābāsāheb.

Kolhāpūr for some time after this enjoyed unusual quiet. General Wellesley when engaged in the campaign against Scindia and the Rājā of Berar having given the Kolhāpūr prince plainly to understand that aggressions against the allies of the English would not be permitted. The feud with the Sardesāis of Sāvantavāḍi however was kept up and mutual incursions were made which resulted in 1806 in the defeat of the Sāvants in a pitched battle and the siege of their capital. The place would probably have been taken had not Lakṣmibāi, the Regent of Sāvantvādi, applied for aid to the Peśavā. The latter assisted her by secretly instigating the Nipāṇi chief to take possession of the districts of Cikoḍi and Manoli, on which the Kolhāpūr Rājā hastily raised the siege of Vāḍi and returned to his own territory. Active hostilities then took place between him and the Nipāṇikar, which resulted in the total defeat of the former in a battle at Sāvgāṅv in 1808. The Nipāṇikar, however, did not press his advantage, and in the following year a peace was negotiated which was to be consolidated by the marriage of the Nipāṇikar with one of the Kolhāpūr princesses. The marriage took place but had not the desired effect. In the midst of the wedding festivities the Nipāṇi chief suddenly decamped with his bride, and a hostile incursion made not long after into Kolhāpūr territory showed that the new tie was not of much political importance. The attack, which was made at the instigation of the Peśavā, was so successful that the town of Kolhāpūr would probably have been taken were it not for a new treaty made with the English in 1812 under the following circumstances

The attitude assumed by the great feudatories of the Peśavā towards their master rendered it necessary for Elphinstone, the British Resident at Poona, to interfere and bring them to terms. With this view he assembled a force at Pandharpur in 1811. It was resolved to take advantage of this opportunity to put a stop once for all to the sea raids which prevailed in the States of Sāvantvāḍi and Kolhāpūr and which the provisions of former treaties had utterly failed to suppress. Accordingly negotiations were entered upon with the Kolhāpūr Rājā. Some

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delay was occasioned by the Peśavā, who made an assertion that the Rājā was his feudatory while at the same time he kept urging on the Nipāṇikar to continue hostilities against Kolhāpūr. On the 1st of October 1812, a treaty was concluded by which the Rājā ceded to the British the harbour of Mālvan and its dependencies, engaged to abstain from sea raids and wrecking, renounced his claim to the districts of Chikoḍi and Manoli, and further agreed not to attack any foreign State without the consent of the British Government, to whom all disputes were to be referred. In return for these concessions the British renounced all their claims against the Rājā, who received the British guarantee for all the territories remaining in his possession "against the aggression of all foreign powers and States." Kolhāpūr, in short, became a protected State under the British Government.

The pattern of the history of the district of Kolhāpūr subsequent to the establishment of British authority is inherently different from that of the histories of most other districts of the State, the area comprised by which was brought directly under British Government after the defeat or submission of their respective rulers. For such districts was evolved a system of bureaucratic administration under British aegies. However, even after its conquest Kolhāpūr was not annexed to the British dominion. Like other Indian States in different parts of India it was permitted to retain its identity as a political unit. Its rulers were permitted to retain their regal status and to enjoy, subject to the overall control when necessary of the paramount power, full powers of internal administration. There was thus no break with historical continuity and not much of an alteration in the old aspect and apparatus of Government. Till its merger in the Indian Union in 1948, the history of Kolhāpūr was to a great extent the history of its rulers ; they created and controlled the administration and personally directed the affairs of the State. It was only at a very late stage that agitation for rights started among their subjects and some machinery for associating the people's representatives with Government was brought into existence. Events however moved with unexpected rapidity after World War II and within a year after the achievement of freedom, in 1949 the artificial distinction between Indian India as represented by Indian States and British India completely disappeared.

After a reign of fifty-three years the Rājā Śivājī died on the 24th of April 1812, leaving two sons Śambhu alias Abāsāheb and Śāhājī alias Bāvāsāheb. The condition of Kolhāpūr during this period is thus summarised by Major Graham in his statistical account of that Principality[1] :

"The long reign of Śivājī had been from the commencement one of almost incessant hostility and continued suspense between the prospects of reign and of conquest ; and to support

[1] A considerable part of this narration is based on Graham's account.

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the fierce struggle for independence, every effort to provide means had been resorted to, piracy at sea, plunder at the court, and oppression in the collection of the revenue, and all frequently without avail.

"Grants of land were unsparingly made to the impoverishment of the Crown estates; two-thirds of the entire country were thus transferred to partisans for military services, and a swarm of reckless characters were left behind who rejoiced in anarchy and whose livelihood was to be gathered only among the troubled waters. All the evils also of the feudal system prevailed in full force; continued warfare was allowed between the petty authorities; the rayats were oppressed and the entire rent forcibly seized during the harvest season; fines increased and only meted out to favoured followers; merchants and wayfarers were despoiled during the journey; the labour of the cultivator was exacted without remuneration; and a multiplicity of monopolies existed to the destruction of all trade."

Shambhu (1812-1821).

SHAMBHU (1812-1821).

Shambhu or Ābāsāhēb,[1] who succeeded to the *gādi* at this juncture, was a prince of a mild disposition, too mild indeed for the people whom he had to govern. He devoted his attention to the restoration of order in his State and to the cultivation of the arts of peace in preference to those of war. Some five years after his accession war broke out between the British and the Peśavā and he espoused the cause of the former. He was rewarded for his conduct at the close of the war by the grant of the districts of Cikoḍi and Manoli, which had changed hands so often during the previous sixty years. At the same time arrangements were made for the management of his possessions in the Koṅkaṇ, which had for their object the consolidation of the British power in that quarter and the effectual prevention of sea raids.

In 1821, Ābāsāhēb met with a violent death. A refugee *sardār* from Karhāḍ, of the Mohitē family, who had been hospitably received in the Kolhāpūr territory and had received villages for the maintenance, felt aggrieved at a grant of land in one of these villages being made to a servant of the Rājā, and expressed his sense of this grievance in unbecoming terms, at the same time that he pressed with vehemence for the payment of some Rs. 20,000 which he said were due to him. After his repeated petitions on the subject had been disregarded, he presented himself at the palace on the 2nd of July, accompanied by six of his relations fully armed. On being admitted to the presence of the Rājā, Sayājī the leader behaved with such insolence that Ābāsāhēb ordered him to be expelled from the

[1] Every Maratha of standing has besides his proper name, another designation such as Babasaheb or Nanasaheb which is used by those about him. The later Rajas of Kolhapur are almost invariably referred to by these familiar names.

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palace and turned himself to leave the room. As he did so one of the party discharged a pistol at him, which inflicted a desperate wound. Four of the Rājā's confidential servants were then slain and, strange to say, such a panic was created that the murderers were able to hold their position in the palace and to keep the wounded Rājā in their hands throughout the whole day. In the evening they surrendered on their lives being guaranteed by two *sardārs* of high rank and the chief *guru* or priest. Shortly afterwards, however, the Rājā died and the securities, feeling unable to act up to the guarantee they had given, provided the Mohitēs with horses and allowed them to escape. The murderers however were soon overtaken and cut to pieces by a party sent in pursuit by the Rājā's widow, and vengeance was taken on their families who were either trampled to death by elephants or imprisoned in Panhāḷā

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Ābāsāhēb having left an infant son, arrangements were made to secure the regency for the child's mother to the exclusion of his uncle. The death of the boy shortly afterwards, however, changed the state of affairs, and Śahājī, generally known as Bāvāsāhēb, the second son of Rājā Śivājī, succeeded without dispute, his title being recognized in open Darbār by the Governor of Bombay who visited Kolhāpūr at this juncture.

The new Rājā was of a character very different from that of his brother and predecessor, wild, reckless, debauched, utterly regardless of truth and honesty, his conduct at times seemed to pass the bounds of sanity. Most of the leading men of the State having taken part in the attempt to exclude him from the regency during his nephew's lifetime, he deliberately set them aside and chose for his officers and associates men of low rank and lower character. With such companions and such counsellors he soon threw off all restraint and embarked on a mad and self-willed career. Justice was unheard of, the rights of property ceased to be respected, and life was utterly insecure. The revenue of the State were alienated to support the profligate extravagance of the Rājā and his seraglio and the friends relations and dependants of the women of the harem. The Rājā himself accompanied a favourite servant of his, Subhānā Nikam by name, who was at the head of a gang of highway robbers, on his marauding excursions, and on one occasion he is said to have used the services of this band to plunder his own treasury. The object of this last feat was to get possession of the State jewels, and thus supply himself with funds without the notoriety that would attach to pawning these jewels.

The Rājā's conduct soon attracted the attentino of the British Government, but in accordance with the policy of the day no notice was taken of it officially so long as the general peace of the country was left undisturbed. This, however, was not long the case. Bāvāsāhēb, shortly after his accession, increased his

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forces considerably and during the disturbance that took place in 1824 at Kittur, when Mr. Thackeray, the Political Agent, and some other British officers were killed, his movements excited considerable apprehension. The suppression of the Kittur insurrection checked whatever intention he may have had of acting against the British Government, but he proceeded to use his force in a way that soon called for the intervention of that power. His own feudatories the chiefs of Kāgal and Ichalakaranjī[1] were attacked and their *jāgirs* overrun, and the Rājā marched about with his forces, sacking towns and plundering and devastating. His own subjects were not the only sufferers from his acts of violence, which extended even to allies and subjects of the British Government. As it was absolutely necessary to put a stop to such proceedings, a force was marched against Kolhāpūr. The Rājā at first meditated resistance but thought better of it and in January 1826 concluded a treaty with the British Government. In this engagement the Rājā bound himself to reduce his army and refrain from disturbing the public peace, as well as from molesting the Kāgal and Ichalkaranjī chiefs and others. He also promised to respect the rights of the Sāvantvāḍi State, as well as the rights and privileges of the *ināmdārs* and others in the districts of Cikoḍi, and Manoli, the cession of which to the Kolhāpūr State was formally confirmed by this treaty, which also fully acknowledged " the independence of the Rājā as a Sovereign Prince."

As soon, however, as the immediate pressure was removed the Rājā returned to his former ways, kept the country in a constant state of alarm and violated the treaty that had just been concluded, so that a force had again to be marched against Kolhāpūr and a new preliminary treaty was concluded in October 1827. In this the instances of breach of the former treaty were set forth side by side with the steps the British Government was compelled to take. Thus the Rājā, though bound by the former treaty to reduce his army to the peace establishment, had not only raised large forces but had employed them in disturbing the public tranquility and committing all sorts of excesses. He was therefore now bound down to keep no more than 400 horse and 800 foot exclusive of garrisons for his forts. The districts of Cikoḍi and Manoli were resumed by the British Government, and Akivaṭ, a notorious haunt of robbers, was ceded to the latter. The

[1] The founder of the Ichalkaranji family was a Brahman clerk named Naro Mahadev, in the service of an ancestor of the Senapati of Kapsi, who bestowed on him the village of Ichalkaranji in *inam*. In compliment to his benefactor the grantee assumed the latter's family name of Ghorpade. Naro Mahadev soon increased in wealth and power, and his fortunes reached their zenith in 1722, when his son was married to the daughter of Balaji Vishvanath the first Peshwa. This alliance was of immense importance to the chiefs of Ichalkaranji, who always relied upon the sympathy and support of the Peshwa *in case of apprehensions received from the Rajas of Kolhapur. Treaties and agreements* concluded from time to time between the Peshwas and Rajas of Kolhapur contain references to the protection granted to Ichalkaranji by the Peshwas against the Kolhapur Rajas (*vide* Treaties, Agreements and Sanads by Vad, Mawaji and Parasnis p. 71).

Rājā bound himself to pay compensation to the amount to about Rs. 1½ lakhs to those who had suffered from his lawless violence and agreed to transfer temporarily territory yielding Rs. 50,000 for the liquidation of this debt. To secure observance of the present treaty it was stipulated that British garrisons should be received into the fort of Kolhāpūr and Panhāḷā, the expenses of the same being defrayed by the Rājā.

With a view to getting this treaty modified, Bāvāsāhēb proceeded to Puṇē to see the Governor, accompanied by a force considerably in excess of the number to which he had bound himself to limit his army. After the intentions of Government had been fully explained to him, he still remained on regardless of all hints and intimations that he had better return to his own territory, apparently in the hope of wearying out the Government by his pertinacity. During this period the lawless conduct of himself and his followers made them most unwelcome visitors, until at last an act of violence was perpetrated on a trooper in the British service, and the Rājā in fear of the possible consequences left Puṇē hastily. Untaught by experience, Bāvāsāhēb renewed on his return to Kolhāpūr the excesses which had already brought him into such trouble, wantonly violated his engagements with the British Government, and disturbed the public tranquillity to such a degree that a force had to be sent against him for the third time. A definitive treaty was concluded on the 15th of March 1929 in which were embodied the provisions of the preliminary treaty made on 24th of October 1827. On this occasion a brigade of British troops was left at Kolhāpūr to secure the observance of the treaty. After some time, however, this was withdrawn.

During the last ten years of Bāvāsāhēb's reign he abstained on the whole from such conduct as would necessitate the intervention of the paramount power to preserve the peace, but his rule was what might be expected from a prince of his character. Overwhelmed with debt he never thought of reducing expenditure by legitimate means, but maintained a large standing army and the same expensive style of grandeur as before. As the pay of his troops and officials was issued most irregularly, they helped themselves to whatever they could get. Most of the *sardārs* had to mortgage their estate to the money-lenders and thus became beggared. Money being scarce and land of little value, the Rājā alienated an enormous proportion of his territory by grants and *ināms* with which the most trifling services were rewarded. Of course with such a ruler and under such circumstances, bribery, favouritism, and pandering to his evil passions were the only means of advancement, and altogether the State was reduced to as miserable a condition as can well be conceived.

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The very last act of Bāvāsāhēb was most characteristic. Under pretence of a pilgrimage to Tuljāpūr he prepared for a plundering expedition by raising an army of 20,000 men. As he was bound by treaty not to take guns about with him, he concealed his ordinance in carts under leaves and started off. Fortunately for his descendants, however, he was attacked with cholera before he could execute his wild project, and died at a village near Paṇḍharapūr on the 29th of November 1838, leaving two sons, Śiva or Śivājī and Śambhū, generally known as Bābāsāhēb and Chimāsāhēb, and two daughters.

Shivaji IV
(1837-1866).

ŚIVAJI IV (1837-1866).

Bābāsāhēb was at once placed on the *gadī*, but being a minor, a council of regency was formed, consisting of his mother, his aunt the *Divāṇsāheb* as she was styled, and four *kārbhāris*. The ladies quarelled and in the course of six months the *Divāṇsāheb*, being the most energetic and having the strongest followers, managed to get the whole power into her hands. As she blindly followed in most respects the system adopted by the late Rājā, her rule was not by any means calculated to improve the condition of the State. Indeed, with a population composed of such turbulent elements as that of Kolhāpūr and so inured to anarchy and violence, it would have been impossible for a woman to stem, even if she had the will to do so, the tide of corruption, oppression, and iniquity. The British authorities made a faint effort to improve matters by getting two of the *kārbhārīs* dismissed and making use of an *akhbārnavīsa* as Native Agent, but no improvement was thus effected and at last in 1843 it was determined to act on the clause of the treaty which empowered the British Government to appoint a minister, and accordingly a respectable Brāhman official, Dājī *Kṛṣṇa* Pandit, was selected for the post. Immediately after his arrival, two of his co-adjutors were dismissed for speculation and the chief power was thus left uncontrolled in his hands. He at once set about the work of reform, reduced expenditure and checked to a great extent the illicit gains of the chiefs and officials.

He also seems to have hurt the pride of the latter, and became most unpopular throughout the State. The *Divāṇsāheb* and her party did not relish the transference of power to a Brāhman interloper, as they considered the new minister to be, and every reform introduced and every abuse checked by the latter raised up for him a host of enemies. A year after his arrival the latent speaks of disaffection arose which had to be suppressed by British troops. The actual insurgents were the gaḍkarīs, the permanent garrisons of the hill-forts, but they enjoyed the sympathies, if not the more tangible support, of

[1] Literally *akbharnavis* means a newswriter, a class of official formerly much employed whose duty it was to report what went on in the Indian States, and to act as the channel of ordinary communication between the chiefs and the British authorities.

other classes as well. These men were dissatisfied with an arrangement by which their lands were placed under the supervision of the *māmlatdārs* of the adjoining sub-divisions. They had always been accustomed to seek redress by mutinying and they were encouraged to do so on this occasion by the reports which had been carefully disseminated throughout the country of the paucity of British troops in those parts. Accordingly in July 1844, the garrisons of Sāmangaḍ and Bhudargaḍ in the south of the Kolhāpūr territory, revolted and shut the gates of the forts.

A force was despatched from Bēḷagāñv, in the middle of September against Sāmāngaḍ, while Kolhāpūr troops were sent against Bhudargaḍ. The British force, after taking the peṭā or sub-division found itself unable to take the former fort by storm and was obliged to send to Bēḷagāñv, for siege guns, while the Kolhāpūr force was worsted in a sally made from Bhudargaḍ. This success of the insurgents brought numerous adherents to their cause and spread the disaffection widely. The *śibandis* or local militia at Kolhāpūr rose in revolt, confined the minister Dājī Pandit and set up a Government in supersession of that acknowledged by the British. Affairs having now assumed such a serious aspect, corresponding efforts were made for the suppression of the revolt. Reinforcements were sent to the disturbed district and on the 8th of October 1844, General Delamotte assumed command of the whole force. Three days afterwards four siege guns arrived at Sāmāngaḍ and were at once put in position Mr. Reeves the Commissioner then gave the garrison opportunity of stating their grievance and coming to terms but as it was found that they only wished to gain time in the hope of getting aid from Kolhāpūr, fire was opened on the fort, a practicable breach was made in a day and on the following day, the 13th of October, the place was stormed and taken. Colonel Outram at this time joined the camp as Joint Commissioner and immediately after the fall of Sāmangaḍ marched towards Kolhāpūr with a portion of the force. After much negotiation he, on the 24th of October, obtained the release of Ḍājī Pandit, and was joined by the young Rājā, his aunt and mother, and several of the chiefs and *sardārs*. On this Bābājī Ahirekar, the ring leader of the *śibandī* rising, fled with five hundred of his men to Bhudargaḍ. After considerable delay General Delamotte appeared with his force before this fort. He admitted the garrison to surrender on the 10th of November and allowed himself to be detained at one gate while Bābājī and his party escaped by another and took refuge in Panhāḷā. Shortly afterwards Colonel Ovans, who had been appointed Commissioner, was captured by the insurgents while proceeding to take up his appointment and confined in the same place. General Delamotte therefore marched thither and on the 25th of November appeared with his whole force before Panhāḷā, accompanied by the Commissioner, Mr. Reeves and Colonel Outram. The

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garrison were called on to release Colonel Ovans and surrender at discretion or take the consequences. With the first of these demands they complied, in the hope of obtaining favourable terms, but as they refused to surrender, the attack commenced. On the 27th of November, the *peṭā* was taken. The batteries opened on the 1st of December, a breach was made in a few hours and in the afternoon the place was stormed and taken. The garrison attempted to escape into the neighbouring fort of Pavanagaḍ but were followed so closely by the British troops that this fort also was taken on the same day. During the storm Bābājī and some of the other leaders were killed and a large number of prisoners were taken.

Almost immediately after the fall of Panhāḷā a force was despatched under Colonel Wallace against the fort of Rāṇgṇā, which was evacuated by the garrison a day or two after his arrival. Viśāḷgaḍ, was about the same time surrendered and this put an end to military operations as far as Kolhāpūr was concerned, the scene of hostilities being then transferred to Sāvantvāḍī.

The captured forts were then dismantled and steps were taken to secure the future tranquillity of the country.

Among the measures adopted for the administration of Kolhāpūr was the appointment of a British officer as Political Superintendent. Previously to this the political supervision of the territory had been vested, first in the Principal Collector of Dhārwaḍ and afterwards in the Collector of Bēḷagañv who was also Political Agent in the Southern Marāṭhā Country. Experience, however, showed that Kolhāpūr required the undivided attention of a British officer on the spot, and Captain D. C. Graham of the Bombay Army was appointed first Political Superintendent. He had a difficult task before him. The Principality was overwhelmed with debt as, in addition to the debt incurred by its rulers, the cost of suppressing the insurrection was charged to Kolhāpūr and had to be paid to the British Government by instalments. Education was almost unheard of and the arrangements for the administration of justice were very imperfect. There were a large number of persons, too, in the State who despised any other occupation but that of carrying arms and who, if left unemployed, would form a class dangerous to the community. Such persons were provided with occupation by being enlisted in a local corps which was raised and disciplined by British officers and which on more than one occasion did good service. Arrangements were made to liquidate by degrees the debts of the State and the administration was carried on, as economically as was consistent with due provision for the requirements of justice and education.

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The work begun by Captain Graham was carried on by his successors and the annals of Kolhāpūr during this period, though dull, as uneventful annals generally are, present a picture of continued progress. Under the steady firm Government that was established, peace and order prevailed and the anarchy and disorder that had once characterised the place became a tradition of the past.

The stability of this improved state of affairs was severely tested in 1857, when the Twenty-seventh Regiment Native Infantry which was then stationed at Kolhāpūr, followed the example of the Bengāl Army and mutinied under the leadership of one Rāmji Sheersat on 31st July 1857. The Kolhāpūr local corps remained staunch on this occasion and the mutineers, receiving no support either from them or from the townspeople, fled towards Ratnāgirī, murdering, on the way, three of their European officers who had escaped when the mutiny broke out unfortunately took a road that brought them in contact with the mutineers and were subsequently killed by them.[1] A little before this, there was an abortive attempt at a rising in Kolhāpūr. A number of men marched into the town one day and took possession of the palace and the gates of the fort. Troops were immediately marched from the camp to the town but found on their arrival that little remained for them to do, the ringleader of the insurgents having been shot by a guard of the local corps on duty at the palace, after which his followers only thought of making their escape. The news of his rising at Kolhāpūr, however, caused consternation among Bombay Europeans, some of whom sent their families to the ships. General Jacob was sent to Kolhāpūr immediately. He reached there about the 10th August 1857 and made inquiries about the rebellion. The first report sent by Bombay Government to the Government of India stated that "in no case the population of the Native Chiefs of the Southern Marāṭhā, country evinced any sympathy with the mutinous spirit." But Jacob himself has said that "disaffection was general."[2]

The second rebellion broke out on 6th of December 1857. This was handled by Major General Jacob himself and was suppressed on the second day. A drum court martial was immediately held on the open ground of the palace where eight men were blown up from guns, two hanged and eleven shot by musketry. "All met death with fortitude, refusing to purchase life by betraying their common secret." From the report made by General Jacob to the Bombay Government, it was clear that (1) there was communication and planning between the Native Infantry at Kolhāpūr, Bēḷgāṅv, and

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[1] Source Material for a History of Freedom Movement Volume I, p. 258.

[2] *Ibid*, 258.

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Dharwar ; (2) Chimāsāhēb, the younger brother of the Rājā was the moving spirit behind this organisation, (3) Chimāsāhēb, and contacts with Nānāsāhēb, Peśavā, whose emissary had brought a gilded sword for him ; (4) Chimāsāhēb, had contact with Gwalior leaders, from where a deputation had visited Kolhāpūr under some pretext and had negotiations with him ; (5) Chimāsāhēb, also had assured the Sātārā emissaries in June 1857 that Kolhāpūr sepoys and some chiefs were ready for action and that they were waiting for a signal from Sātārā. There was also a link between the rebels at Kolhāpūr and their friends in the Poona School of Musketry. In the course of this rising, 31 rebels were executed on the first occasion before the trial was completed and 51 persons were executed for the second rebellion. Jacob himself had seen twenty-one souls being shot or blown."[1]

During the mutiny of 1857-58 the Rājā was considered to have remained staunch and loyal to the British Government, but his brother Chimāsāhēb was charged with treason and deported to Karachi, where he died some years later. The Government marked their sense of the Rājā's loyalty by conferring on him the Order of the Star of India and granting a *sanad* of adoption. He was further, at the end of 1862, vested with the administration of his Principality, a new engagement being entered into defining his powers and providing for the liquidation of the debt still due to the British Government.

Rajaram II (1866-1870).

RAJARAM II (1866-1870)

Bābāsāhēb did not long enjoy his powers, as he died in August 1866. A son that he had by his wife, the daughter of the Gaikwāḍ of Baḍodē, had died some time previously ; so, being without issue, he adopted on his death-bed Nāgojīrāv, the son of his eldest sister who had been married to a member of the Paṭaṇkar family and had died not long afterwards. Nāgojīrāo, who received on his adoption the name of Rājārām, was about sixteen years of age at the time of the Rājā's death and had received some education. When the adoption was sanctioned by the paramount power and he was formally recognized as Rājā, arrangements were at once made to finish his education and give him as complete a training as was possible under the circumstances. With this view a special Assistant to the Political Agent was appointed who, in addition to his other duties, was entrusted with the supervision of the Rājā's education and training, the actual work of tuition being carried on by a Pārsi graduate of the Bombay University. He was sent to Europe where he was presented to the Queen. After spending five months in seeing England, Scotland and Ireland he proceeded to the continent but unfortunately took seriously ill on the way and breathed his last in Florence on

[1] *Ibid* 259.

30th November. His remains were burnt according to the rites of the Hindu religion on the banks of the Arno at the spot beyond the Cascini, now marked by a cupola and a bust of the deceased, and the ashes were collected afterwards and taken to the Gaṅgā by his attendants.[1]

Śivaji V (1870-1883).

Shivaji V (1870-1883).

As Rājārām left no issue, his widows were allowed to adopt and the choice of the family fell on Nārāyaṇrāo son of Dinkarrāo Bhonslē, a member of the same branch of the family from which the adoption was made in 1760 as narrated above. The choice was approved by Government and in October 1871 the boy, then in his ninth year, was formally adopted, receiving on the occasion the name of Śivājī. Arrangements were made for the education of the minor prince under the guardianship of Mr. Hammick, a member of the Civil Service, and everything progressed fairly upto 1879, when unfortunately the Rājā's mind was reported to show signs of failing and he was withdrawn from the Rajkumār College at Rājkoṭa where he had been prosecuting his studies. In spite of the treatment of several distinguished medical officers, his condition gradually became worse. In January 1882, a committee of medical officers appointed by Government examined the Rājā. As the committee pronounced his malady to be incurable, Government thought it necessary to appoint a form of administration during his disability. Accordingly in March 1882, under a Government Resolution the affairs of the Kolhāpūr administration were transferred to a Regency Council. The Regent, the Chief of Kāgal, was assisted by a Council of three, the Divāṇ, the Chief Judge, and the Chief Revenue Officer.

Śahu Chatrapati (1884-1922).

Shahu Chatrapati (1884-1922).

On the 25th of December 1883, the Rājā died at Ahmednagar where according to the version of British authorities he had been removed for the benefit of his health. However, reports about the ill-treatment of Śivājīrāo at the hands of those who were supposed to look after him were widely prevalent amongst the public ever since 1880. The insane Mahārājā was whipped by his European guardians and Dr. Murphy justified that kind of treatment, in his statement made in a court of law. Having been removed to Ahmednagar fort, far away from Kolhāpūr and much against the will of his nearest relatives, the

[1] A diary kept by the Raja during his residence in Europe was after his death edited by Captain, afterwards Lieutenant Colonel West and published by Smith and Elder of London.

Mahārājā was often subjected to similar torture. His death occurred in the course of a scuffle between him and his guardian Mr. Green.[1]

As the Rājā died without any issue the Rānīs of Kolhāpūr, with the approbation of Government, selected Yashavantarāo alias Bābā Sāhēb, the eldest son of the Regent, the Chief of Kāgal, to fill the vacant throne, and accordingly on the 17th of March 1884, under the style and title of Śāhū Chatrapatī Mahārājā, he was adopted by Ānandibaī Sāhēb, the widow of the late Śivājī Chatrapatī. As the new Mahārājā was only ten years old, the affairs of the State continued to be conducted by the Regency Council. On 2nd of April 1894 he was installed on the *gādī* of Kolhāpūr and invested with full powers of the State. Kolhāpūr had undergone a long period of regency rule and the reports that were widely believed in about the way in which the last Chatrapatī, Śivājī V, had been treated at Ahamadnagar had created an atmosphere of suspicion about the intentions of the paramount power. Hence when the Mahārājā was installed on the *gādī*, people in Mahārāṣṭra had reason to be jubilant over the occasion. An address was presented to the Mahārājā by the Poona Sarvajnika Sabhā a responsible body which was then more or less the mouthpiece of the awakened and enlightened opinion in the Deccan.

The accession of Śāhū Chatrapatī to the *gādī* may be said to have opened a new chapter in the life of Kolhāpūr and to a considerable extent in the life of Māhārāśṭra. His rule lasted over 38 years from 1884 to 1922 and witnessed the release of powerful social forces which succeeded in bringing about a remarkable transformation of the existing social picture. The significance of the change can be properly understood in the context of the larger background of a national renaissance which was slowly rising on the Indian horizon from the early years of the present century.

It is a matter of common historical observation that a living society and a living religion periodically pass through the cycle of stagnation, deviation, resurgence and reform. For several decades before and during the 19th century Hinduism had come to be disaffected and distorted by many irrational dogmas, beliefs and practices. The social structure, based as it was on caste which in its turn was based purely on birth and heredity, tended to generate among large sectors of Hindu society an undercurrent of a sense of suppression, injustice

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[1] Lokmanya Tilak who was then editor of *Mahratta*, the English weekly of Poona, and his friend and colleague Gopalrao Agarkar who was editor of *Kesari*, the Marathi weekly also of Poona, gave through their editorials vigorous expression to the popular feeling of resentment against the way in which the Maharaja was reported to have been treated. Unfortunately their writing was based upon evidence that could not be judicially corroborated and they were sentenced to rigorous imprisonment of four months on 17th July 1882, in spite of their having tendered apologies.

and injury. The introduction and spread of western education with its accent on reason, scientific analysis and the rights of man further accentuated the discontent against a social order which sanctified artificial inequality between man and man, seemed to attach hardly any importance to human personality as such and condemned large masses of men to a pattern of life which was at once static and unpleasant. Intellectual unrest against such a palpably unfair and untenable arrangement began to manifest itself among a prominent section of the intelligentia. Great reformers like Rām Mohan Rōy, Mahādeo Govind Rānaḍe, Dayānand Saraswatī, Gopāḷ Gaṇesh Āgarkar and others appeared on the scene and vigorously expounded the new liberalism which denounced distinctions based on caste and creed, advocated a proper spiritual and philosophical approach to religion and preached the sanctity of the individual irrespective of his birth and social status.

Jyotibā Phulē who belonged to a Mahārāṣṭrian community which was educationally backward and who himself was not highly educated could feel at first hand the iniquity and the harm imposed by the caste system and by the so-called religious injunctions supposed to be prescribed in the *śāstras*. Endowed with a native intelligence and fired by the zeal and courage of a rebel, Jyotibā started an energetic campaign to expose the crudities and absurdities of the prevalent beliefs and practices considered to be a part of religion and the injustice of determining human values merely by the accident of heredity and birth. He founded an organization called the Satya Śodhak Samāj (Society for Search after Truth) and by his forthright writings and eloquent speeches awakened among the masses a spirit of questioning and self-assertion which soon developed into a solid opposition to orthodox tenets and rituals enjoined by the established priesthood.

The formative years of Śāhū Chatrapatī's life and the earlier years of his rule synchronised with the growth of this movement which was gradually gathering momentum. The majority of his subjects were educationally backward and suffered from the handicaps of caste domination. It is no wonder that he was attracted to the teachings of Jyotibā Phulē and the doctrines of the Satya Śodhaka Samāj. And his interest in that reformist crusade assumed immensely active proportions when he found that even he, the Chatrapatī, was denied by his archaic priesthood the privilege of vedic rites on the ground that he was not a Kshatriya. Fortunately for him, the Mahārājā possessed not only the urge of a reformer but also, as a ruler, the power to enforce his will in his State. In addition, he possessed throughout Mahārāṣṭra great prestige as the scion of a family the founder of which is held in the highest veneration by all Marāṭhī-speaking people.

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With these assets, the Mahārājā set about his task with energy and vigour. Primary education was made compulsory in the State. Special facilities were provided for backward classes to receive higher education. Free boarding houses were established for students of different communities. Services in the State were manned by persons belonging to the so-called backward classes. Untouchability was given a serious below. The existing religious *pīṭha* or organized religious centres which had proved itself to be incapable of a dynamic approach to its responsibilities and which had enjoyed revenues from State endowments was practically disestablished and its endowments withdrawn. No quarter was to be given to religious obscurantism and ungodly superstitions. In short, social life as a whole received a new look, a new tempo and a new orientation.

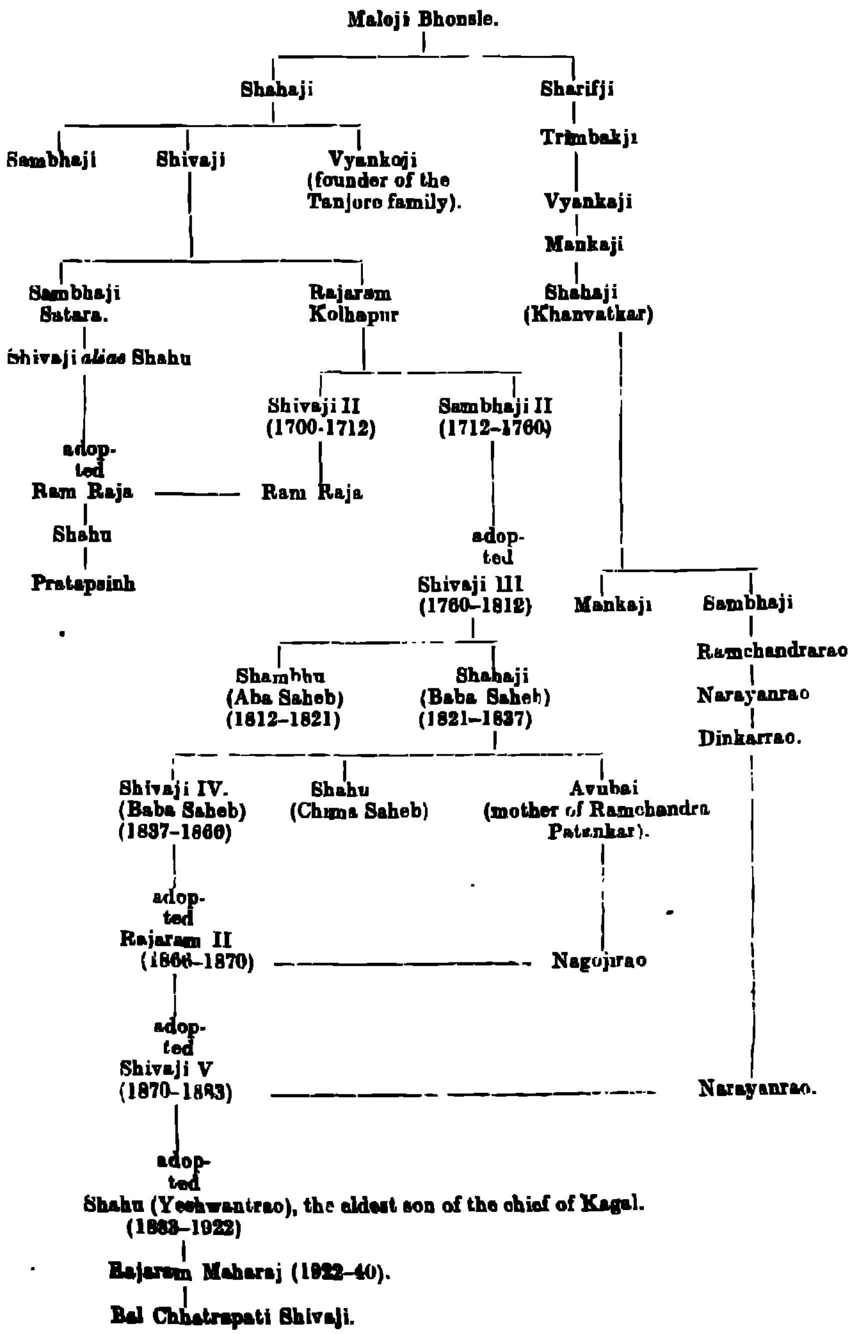
In mighty social upheavals of this type, it often happens that in the enthusiasm to do away with one set of wrongs and injustice, new wrongs, new iniquities and new indignities are perpetrated. A mass upsurge frequently comes to be driven by its own motive power towards irrational and violent extremes, and the ferment in Kolhāpūr was not immune from such unhealthy aberrations. It is also noticed that the militant social reformism which permeated and conditioned life in Kolhāpūr in the first two decades of this century is nat, curiously enough, found to have developed any significant counterpart in the shape of keen appreciation of and understanding sympathy for movements towards political liberalism and national freedom which were filling the pages of contemporary Indian history, particularly in Mahārāṣṭra. On the contrary, there was active support to the opponents of these movements among the alien rulers. However, times were moving and changing, and the next generation did witness the people of Kolhāpūr having their share in the wider political consciousness that was fast growing in the country and in the resultant national struggles for liberation. After the advent of independence in 1947, Kolhāpūr in common with other Indian States took the historic decision to merge its individuality in the larger entity of free India, and its territory now forms the Kolhāpūr district of Mahārāṣṭra State.

Kolhapur State had eleven feudatories; their titles or names were - Pant Pratinidhi (Chief of Vishalgad), Pant Amatya (Chief of Bavda), Senapati (Chief of Kapshi) Sarjerav Vajarat Mab (Chief of Kagal), Ghorpade (Chief of Ichalkaranji), Sena Khaskhel (Chief of Torgal), Amir-ul-Umrav (Chief of Datvad), Himmat Bahadur, (Sarjerav Deshmukh of Kagal), Sar Lashkar Bahadur and Patankar.

The more important of the feudatories were: the Chiefs of Vishalgad, Bavda, Kagal, and Ichalkaranji. The Chief of Vishalgad, styled Pant Pratinidhi, was a Deshasth Brahman and his family name was Jaykar. His headquarters were at Malkapur, twenty-eight miles north-west of Kolhapur. The Chief of Bavda, styled Pant Amatya was a Deshasth Brahman and his family name was Bhadanekar. He used to reside at Kolhapur. The Chief of Kagal, styled Sarjerav Vajarat Mab, was a Maratha by caste and his family name was Ghatge. He used to reside at Kolhapur. The Chief of Ichalkaranji, styled Ghorpade, was a Konkanasth Brahman and his family name was Joshi. His head-quarters were at Ichalkaranji about eighteen miles east of Kolhapur. He was a first class *sardar* of the Bitish Government for rank and precedence only and had subsequently been permitted to pay a separate visit to the head of the Government.

The following is a genealogical table of the Kolhāpūr Rājās:—

Kolhāpūr Family tree.



PART III

CHAPTER 3—THE PEOPLE AND THEIR CULTURE

CHAPTER 3.

People and their Culture.

THE PEOPLE.

Details of 1951 Census.

THE POPULATION OF THE NEWLY CREATED DISTRICT OF KOLHAPUR, according to the census of 1951 is 1,227,547 (*m.* 623,421; *f.* 604,126). Spread over its area of 2,794·4[1] sq. miles, it works out at 439·3 to the sq. mile. This total is composed of Hindus numbering 1,104,651 (*m.* 559,838; *f.* 544,813) or 89·99 per cent.; Jains 58,124 (*m.* 30,006; *f.* 28,118) or 4·73 per cent.; Muslims 56,356 (*m.* 29,225; *f.* 27,131) or 4·59 per cent.; Christians 8,356 (*m.* 4,305; *f.* 4,051) or 0·68 per cent. The census has also enumerated separately 139,075 (*m.* 69,670; *f.* 69,405) belonging to "Scheduled Castes" and 214 (*m.* 133; *f.* 81) belonging to "Scheduled Tribes", 5,054 (*m.* 2,612; *f.* 2,442) as "Displaced persons" from Pakistan and 58 (*m.* 48; *f.* 10) as "Non-Indian" Nationals. The proportion of males in the whole population of the district was 50·7 and of females 49·3.[2]

The tract-wise distribution of the population over the district is as follows:—

Rural Tracts: 950,090 (*m.* 479,416; *f.* 470,674)—Karvir, Kagal, 221,178 (*m.* 112,605; *f.* 108,573); Hatkanangale and Shirol 194,085 (*m.* 99,843; *f.* 94,242); Gadhinglaj, Ajra and Bhudargad 222,452 (*m.* 111,279; *f.* 111,173); Bavda, Radhanagari, Shahuwadi and Panhala 312,375 (*m.* 155,689; *f.* 156,686).

Urban Tracts: 277,457 (*m.* 144,005; *f.* 133,452)—Kolhapur city 136,833 (*m.* 71,360; *f.* 65,475); Hatkanangale, Shahuwadi and Panhala 107,703 (*m.* 55,748; *f.* 51,955); Gadhinglaj, Kagal and Ajra 32,919 (*m.* 16,897; *f.* 16,022).

Livelihood Pattern.

The population is split up by the census into eight livelihood classes.

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[1] This area figure has been obtained from the Land Records Department or from Local records; the same as furnished by the Surveyor General of India is 2,756·3 sq. miles.

[2] The composition of population in Kolhapur State in 1881. These figures pertain to the old Kolhapur State to which were added new areas when it was reorganised under the same name after the merger of Indian States with the Indian Union. Out of a total population of 800,189, Hindus numbered 719,104, Jains 46,732, Musalmans 33,022, Christians 1,253 and others 18.

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Agricultural classes: (i) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents—663,073 (*m.* 333,445; *f.* 329,628). (ii) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents—154,023 (*m.* 79,481; *f.* 74,542). (iii) Cultivating labourers and their dependents—84,636 (*m.* 42,595; *f.* 42,041). (iv) Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents—26,523 (*m.* 12,055; *f.* 14,478). Total—928,265 (*m.* 467,576; *f.* 460,689).

Non-agricultural Classes: Persons (including dependents) who derive their principal means of livelihood from, (v) Production other than cultivation—108,707 (*m.* 56,632: *f.* 52,075). (vi) Commerce—40,612 (*m.* 27,571; *f.* 13,041). (vii) Transport—9,189 (*m.* 4,906; *f.* 4,283). (viii) Other services and miscellaneous sources—127,528 (*m* 66,736; *f.* 60,792). Total—299,282 (*m.* 155,845; *f.* 143,437).

Of the seven tables of population statistics printed below:—

The first indicates the variation in area, houses and population over the long period from 1881 to 1951 (except for the year 1901).

The second table shows the changes in the composition of the population, for the years 1911, 1931 and 1951, in regard to age and marriage. The figures available for 1951 are for a sample population only.

The third gives for the years 1911, 1931 and 1951 the distribution of population according to languages.

The fourth exhibits the distribution of population by religion during the various Census years.

The fifth enumerates the distribution of population among the *talukās* according to the census for 1951.

The sixth and the seventh give "area, houses, and inmates" for urban and rural areas in 1951.

TABLE No. 1.

AREA, HOUSES AND POPULATION FROM 1881 TO 1951.

District Kolhapur.

Census years.	Area in Square Miles.	Towns	Villages	Occupied Houses		Population			
				Urban	Rural	Urban		Rural	
						Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1881 ..	2,816	5	1,056	11,505	1,17,643	33,024	32,999	3,77,623	3,56,543
1891	2,855	9	1,056	18,525	1,42,107	55,763	53,284	4,05,111	3,95,853
1911	3,217	9	1,060	19,447	1,39,734	46,740	42,741	3,77,695	3,66,265
1921	3,217	11	1,036	21,158	1,45,035	54,998	49,714	3,73,545	3,55,469
1931 ..	3,217	14	1,040	24,564	1,57,880	72,277	63,286	4,18,059	4,03,515
1941 ..	3,219	14	1,037	34,222	1,81,218	90,352	81,583	4,64,586	4,55,525
1951	2,794·4	19	948	40,651	1,47,786	1,44,005	1,33,452	4,79,416	4,70,674

TABLE No. II.

CIVIL CONDITIONS BY AGE PERIODS (ALL COMMUNITIES).

District Kolhapur.

1911.

Age Periods	Total Population		Married		Unmarried		Widowed.	
	Male	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0–5 ..	57,674	58,582	859	3,475	56,798	55,029	17	78
5–10 ..	54,019	51,786	2,357	16,111	51,561	35,118	101	557
10–15 ..	51,261	42,353	7,969	30,282	42,939	10,341	353	1,730
15–20 ..	34,186	29,912	13,904	26,099	19,673	1,015	609	1,798
20–40 ..	1,28,079	1,29,232	1,06,158	1,05,265	14,838	2,221	7,083	21,746
40–60 ..	77,327	72,438	62,808	31,845	1,611	897	12,908	39,696
60 and over	21,889	25,703	13,959	2,649	337	238	7,593	22,816
Total ..	8,33,441	4,24,435	2,08,014	2,15,726	1,87,757	1.04,859	28.664	88,421

TABLE No. II—*contd.*

1931.

Age Periods.	Total Population.		Married.		Unmarried.		Widowed.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0–1	14,640	14,553	67	85	14,573	14,466	....	2
1–5	55,694	60,069	623	1,659	55,062	58,348	9	62
5–10	68,102	16,360	2,273	13,066	65,744	47,793	85	501
10–15	62,684	53,674	5,213	23,807	57,308	28,956	163	891
15–20	41,950	29,513	16,109	35,656	25,406	2,556	441	1,701
20–30	79,574	81,268	58,810	71,996	18,603	1,999	2,161	7,273
30–40	67,072	63,528	59,551	47,285	3,329	963	4,192	15,280
40–50	47,967	42,829	40,995	22,230	933	610	6,039	19,989
50–60	31,076	28,042	23,939	8,086	459	421	6,678	19,535
60 and over.	21,571	22,185	14,037	3,239	322	198	7,212	18,748
Total ..	4,90,336	4,60,801	2,21,617	2,26,509	2,41,739	1,56,310	26,980	83,982

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TABLE No. II—*contd.*

1951*.

Age Periods.	Total Population.		Married.		Unmarried.		Widowed or Divorced.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
-0	1,970	1,918	....	....	....	....	....	....
1-4	6,606	6,331	....	....	....	....	....	....
5-14	16,796	15,404	45	743	16,747	14,649	....	....
15-24	10,175	10,318	2,423	8,430	7,721	1,645	4	12
25-34	9,179	9,401	7,970	8,461	1,028	95	31	193
35-44	7,459	6,676	6,956	5,230	219	47	181	665
45-54	5,355	4,748	5,586	2,498	92	23	384	1,399
55-64	3,327	3,070	2,525	688	42	24	677	2,227
65-74	1,173	1,415	779	180	32	9	760	2,358
75 and over...	404	485	211	44	15	5	362	1,226
Age not stated.	8	4	....	....	8	2	178	436
							...	2
Total ..	62,452	59,770	25,395	26,504	34,480	24,748	2,557	8,518

*The Census Authorities prepared this table on the basis of data collected from the 10 per cent sample slips of the general population.

TABLE No. III.

LANGUAGE (MOTHER-TONGUE), DISTRICT KOLHAPUR.

Languages.	1911.		1931.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Marathi ..	3,37,953	3,27,566	3,91,768	3,72,478	5,24,025	5,14,479
Kannadda ..	67,546	63,940	74,997	72,021	60,200	54,862
*Urdu ..	..	..	..	..	26,672	24,506
Telugu ..	812	647	1,910	1,849	2,824	3,157
*Sindhi ..	..	..	..	..	2,691	2,493
Gujarati ..	..	..	1,146	1,259	2,001	1,021
*Hindi ..	..	..	..	..	2,534	759
Rajasthani ..	168	102	275	[illegible]	608	512
Konkani ..	..	..	304	348	[illegible]	571
Tamil ..	..	..	28	14	569	521
Hindustani ..	..	..	15,811	14,709	381	423
*Kachchhi ..	..	..	12	1	57	42
*Portuguese ..	4	3	..	..	51	43
*Beldari ..	..	..	..	..	30	34
*Tulu ..	..	..	..	..	19	37
*Malayalam ..	..	..	..	..	40	8
*Panjabi ..	4	2	..	..	31	8

*In 1931 Census all these languages are included with other Indian Languages, In 1931 Census all European and Asian languages are not given separately.

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TABLE No. III—*contd.*

Languages.	1911.		1931.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
English ..	21	7	33	28	17	12
*Naipali ..	..	..	..	..	16	4
Bengali ..	..	..	6	1	4	13
*Kanjari ..	..	..	..	..	5	8
Chinese ..	..	..	..	..	2	4
Persian ..	..	..	4	..	2	4
*Oriya ..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Western Hindi ..	2	67	10,447	18,403	..	..
Other Indian Languages.	1,749	1,605	399	209	..	..
Other European Languages.	..	..	..	1	..	..
Gipsy ..	326	277	..	..	..	..
Sindhi ..	20	5	..	..	..	..
Pashtu ..	13	2	..	..	6	..

TABLE No. IV.

Population by religion from 1881 to 1951, District Kolhapur.

Religion.	1881.		1901.		1911.		1921.		1931.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Hindus	3,68,031	3,51,133	4,13,656	4,04,349	3,85,725	3,73,166	3,88,698	3,69,048	4,43,033	4,23,615	5,59,838	5,44,813
Sikhs	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	1
Jains	11,830	12,113	26,199	24,725	20,306	18,488	20,251	17,916	23,133	20,724	30,006	28,118
Buddhists ..	8	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	7
Zoroastrians ..	..	..	5	5	15	6	7	3	7	1	10	5
Muslims	20,554	20,866	19,821	18,732	17,272	16,058	17,972	16,538	21,788	20,077	29,225	27,131
Christians ..	652	601	1,192	1,325	1 117	1,288	1,615	1,678	2,375	2,384	4,305	4,051
Jews	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Parsis	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

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TABLE No. V.

POPULATION BY TALUKA IN 1951, RURAL AND URBAN-DISTRICT KOLHAPUR.

Name of Taluka or Peta.	Males.		Females.		Total	
	Rural.	Urban.	Rural.	Urban.	Rural.	Urban.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ajra ..	26,195	2,703	27,477	2,650	53,672	5,353
Bavada ..	24,912	..	28,010	..	52,922	..
Bhudargad ..	33,162	..	32,767	..	65,929	..
Gadhinglaj ..	51,922	4,381	50,929	4,165	1,02,851	8,546
Hatkanangale ..	54,911	33,043	41,604	30,142	1,06,515	63,185
Kagal ..	46,592	9,813	45,122	9,207	91,714	19,020
Karvir ..	66,013	71,360	63,451	65,475	1,29,464	1,36,835
Panhala ..	44,810	3,863	43,972	3,734	88,782	7,597
Radhanagari ..	44,375	..	42,830	..	87,205	..
Shahuwadi ..	41,592	1,693	41,874	1,606	83,466	3,299
Shirol ..	44,932	17,149	42,638	16,473	87,570	33,622
District Total ..	4,79,416	1,44,005	4,70,674	1,33,452	9,50,090	2,77,457

TABLE No. VI.

URBAN AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES 1951, DISTRICT KOLHAPUR.

Serial No.	Name of village or town/ward.	Area of village or town in square miles.	Number of houses.	Number of house-holds.	Total number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons.)			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.		Number of houses per square mile.	Number of household per square mile.
					Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Ajra ..	3·0	805	992	5,353	2,703	2,650	28	12	268·33	330·66
2	Alte Kasaba ..	12·2	845	1,065	5,214	2,710	2,504	..	..	69·26	87·29
3	Gadhinglaj ..	9·9	1,277	1,519	8,546	4,381	4,165	38	32	128·99	153·43
4	Hupari ..	6·6	989	1,262	7,039	3,745	3,294	..	..	149·85	191·21
5	Ichalkaranji ..	8·7	2,618	5,503	27,423	14,380	13,043	..	..	300·92	632·53
6	Jaysingpur ..	0·75	604	1,626	8,046	4,227	3,821	..	..	805·33	2,168·00
7	Kagal ..	11·3	1,162	1,991	9,821	5,047	4,774	18	3	102·83	176·19
8	Kapashi ..	3·4	631	759	3,562	1,864	1,698	2	..	185·59	223·24
9	Vadgaon Kasaba ..	5·8	782	1,139	6,173	3,164	3,009	..	..	134·83	196·38
10	Kodoli Kasaba ..	8·6	1,346	1,454	7,597	3,863	3,734	67	84	156·51	160·07

TABLE No. VI—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of village or town/ward.	Area of village or town in square miles.	Number of houses.	Number of House-holds.	Total number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons.) Persons.	Males.	Females.	Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons. Males.	Females.	Number of Houses per square mile.	Number of House hold per square mile.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
11	Kolhapur ..	24·8	22,247	27,214	1,36,835	71,360	65,475	944	93	897·06	1,097·34
12	Kimbhoj ..	12·8	853	1,060	5,968	3,107	2,861	..	..	66·64	82·81
13	Kurundwad ..	7·0	1,409	1,838	9,744	4,783	4,961	3	..	201·29	262·57
14	Malkapur ..	10·3	420	641	3,299	1,693	1,606	5	6	40·78	62·23
15	Murgud .	4·5	819	1,061	5,637	2,902	2,735	10	2	182·00	235·78
16	Nandani ..	6·5	992	1,108	5,699	2,942	2,757	6	6	152·62	170·46
17	Pattan Kodoli ..	8·3	624	1,117	5,993	3,111	2,882	..	..	75·18	134·58
18	Rukadi ..	6·4	925	1,046	5,375	2,826	2,549	..	..	144·53	163·44
19	Shirol ..	14·9	1,303	2,062	10,131	5,197	4,934	..	..	87·45	138·39
	Total ..	165·75	40,651	54,457	2,77,457	1,44,005	1,33,452	1,121	238	245·25	328·55

TABLE No. VII.

RURAL AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES 1951, DISTRICT KOLHAPUR.

Serial No.	Name of village or town/ward.	Area of village or town in sq. miles.	Number of houses.	Number of households.	Total Number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons).			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.		Number of houses per sq. mile.	Number of house holds per sq. mile.
					Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		
1	Ajra	202·3	7,917	9,846	53,672	26,195	27,477	140	114	39·13	48·67
2	Bavda (Peta)	260·6	8,519	10,422	52,922	24,912	28,010	55	20	32·69	39·99
3	Bhudargad ..	253·1	9,394	12,355	65,929	33,162	32,767	275	246	37·12	48·81
4	Gadhinglaj (Peta) ..	181·8	15,297	18,699	1,02,851	51,922	50,929	322	264	84·14	102·85
5	Hatkanangale	174·4	17,922	20,037	1,06,515	54,911	51,604	..	..	102·76	114·89
6	Kagal	192·8	13,891	17,789	91,714	46,592	45,122	195	150	72·05	92·27
7	Karvir	237·6	20,145	25,272	1,29,464	66,013	63,451	326	149	84·79	106·36
8	Panhala (Peta) ..	209·7	14,074	16,999	88,782	44,810	43,972	58	58	67·11	81·06
9	Radhanagari	344·5	12,382	16,824	87,205	44,375	42,830	155	123	35·94	48·84
10	Shahuwadi .. .	397·2	14,481	16,357	83,466	41,592	41,874	134	112	36·46	41·18
11	Shirol .. .	175·1	13,758	15,706	87,570	44,932	42,638	3	95	78·57	89·71
	Total .	2,629·1	1,47,780	1,80,304	9,50,090	4,79,416	4,70,674	1,663	1,331	56·21	68·58

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Urban and Rural Population.

Like other districts of the State, Kolhāpūr is essentially a district of villages. There are altogether 967 inhabited places in the district of which 948 are villages (excluding uninhabited villages and villages which form part of Municipal areas) and 19 towns including the city of Kolhāpūr. Out of the total district population 18·5 per cent. live in the urban area and the remaining 81·5 per cent. live in the rural area. Of the 19 towns only one i.e., Kolhapur has a population of more than one lakh—136,835. Kolhāpūr villages are villages of *two classes walled and open.* Some of the village walls are *of burnt brick and mud and some are of stone and mud. Some old villages* have stately gates and ruined fortifications. *In most villages houses are not built in rows* but are scattered all over the village site. Kuṇbīs or husbandmen, Marāṭhās, Jains and Liṅgāyats form the bulk of the population. Dhangars (shepherds) and other herdsmen live with their herds on the hills. On the out skirts of the villages are the quarters of *Harijans* such as Mahārs, Māṅgs, Cāmbhārs and Ḍhors. In the following pages are described some of the customs and cultural traits of the two major community groups— Hindus and Muslims in the district, Hindus being further sub-divided into Vedic and non-Vedic, Jains and Liṅgāyats. The backward classes including the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, are dealt with in a separate section.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

ACCORDING TO THE 1951 CENSUS, there were 188,431 occupied houses in the district (67·42 per sq. mile), 147,780 in the rural area (51·21 per sq. mile), and 40,651 in the urban area (245·25 per sq. mile). The 188,431 occupied houses accommodated 234,761 households[1]. This gave an average of 1·25 households for each occupied house, 1·22 in the rural area and 1·34 in the urban area.

Houses in cities have generally roofs of tiles, and so have a few, owned by well-to-do people, in some of the larger villages. Houses in rural areas in the rainy-west are generally thatched and in the dry east flat roofed. Town houses are generally built with burnt brick ; most rural houses are built of stone or sun-dried brick and mud, mortar-pointed mud, or mortar. Window and door frames, door panels, and window shutters are generally made of *bābhūḷ*, mango, or *jāmbhūḷ*, sometimes of *umbar*, and in the houses of the rich, of teak. Bamboo and teak rafters are largely used.

The houses in the district may be arranged under two divisions, immovable and movable. The immovable houses may be divided into four classes. Those with tiled roofs and walls of fire-baked bricks or dressed black stone ; those with tiled roofs and walls of sun-bricks or mud and stones ; those

[1] A house for census purposes meant " a dwelling with a separate main entrance ". Thus more than one household might be found in the same census house.

with flat earth or tiled roofs and generally walls of unburnt brick; and those with thatched roofs and wattled or grass walls. The movable dwellings belong to wandering tribes who carry them with them. They are of two kinds small tents or *pāls* either of coarse cotton or wool and small huts of bamboo or date matting.

Mansions belonging to the old aristocracy and constructed in the old style are generally two-storeyed (*dumajlī*) and are built round quadrangles with stone or burnt-brick walls, tiled roofs and verandas. They contain broad osarī (lobbies) for large dinner parties, an office room, three or more sleeping-rooms, rooms for keeping clothes and ornaments, a central storeroom, a kitchen and a god-room. In the rear of the house are a cattle-shed and a bathing-room. A privy is located in a distant corner either in front or behind according to convenience of the building. In the rear yard are flower and plantain trees with a *tulas* (holy basil) bush in a masonry pillar post. In the spacious yards of some of the old mansions there used to be rooms for fifty to eighty servants and retainers. The fronts of most such houses were ornamented with carved wood, and on the front walls were drawn in gaudy colours pictures of gods, goddesses, heroes and wild beasts, with alternate bands of white and red to scare the cholera spirit Some of them have an entrance door which is often spacious and imposing and furnished with a small room called *devaḍī* for guards or watchmen, and some had a pen in a yard in which was a cattle-shed and a stable for horses. Buildings like these were owned mostly by *ināmdārs* (holders of public grants) and *jāgirdārs* (land proprietors), now almost an extinct class. Several of them have been transformed into structures to suit modern conditions.

In first class buildings of the new type there is a generous use of steel and cement, the storeys are often three, and open courtyards, where they exist, are comparatively small. In new areas developed under the town planning schemes, there are rows of small bungalows with small open spaces on all sides.

The more modest houses are generally one-storeyed, with walls of fire-baked or unbaked bricks and tiled or flat floors; they contain three or four rooms. In towns they are more roomy and showy, and when held by shop-keepers and craftsmen the verandas are made into shops or work-rooms In rural places the house consists of a front veranda and a central room, with three or four other rooms, one of which is always set apart for cooking. If there is a room in the veranda, the owner of the house makes it his office and place of business. As a rule, the central room is used for dining and worshipping the house gods. Houses of this class have generally a cattle-shed either in front or behind them.

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Houses occupied by husbandmen in villages are one-storeyed with unburnt brick walls, flat earth or tiled or thatched roof and two rooms. They have also large cattle-sheds. Single-roomed thatched huts with mud or mud-wattled reed millet or cotton stalk walls, roofed by a bamboo frame covered with grass and *paḷas* leaves are generally owned by poorer land-holders, field labourers and Harijans and are found chiefly in villages in the hilly parts of the district in the rainy-west. Houses having *dhābīs* or flat roofs are found in the dry-east.

FOOD.

THE PATTERN OF FOOD broadly speaking is the same throughout the district, though there are minor variations in detail according to the dietary habits of particular sections of the community. The main dividing line is presented by the inclusion or non-inclusion of animal food in the diet. Brāhmans, Jains and Liṅgāyats among Hindus are enjoined as communities not to partake of any kind of animal food (though nowadays in actual practice some individuals may not be found to be very scrupulous about the observance of the injunction). Other Hindu communities are not forbidden to take animal food though the use of beef is strictly avoided. Most of them, however, do not take animal food every day but do so only occasionally.

The pastoral, artisan and agricultural classes in the district take three meals a day. Their every day fare consists of millet, rice, wheat on occasions, vegetables and fruits cut in pieces, split pulse, and *āḷan* or *jhuṇkā* (gram flour boiled with cumin, coriander, chillies, salt, turmeric and onions) or chutney, a relish of chillies, salt, onions and garlic. Besides grain, pulse, fruits, spices, oils, curds and butter, they may sometimes eat eggs, meat and other flesh, but few can afford to do so oftener than on occasions of marriage and other family festivals and a few important holidays such as *Dasarā* and *Śimgā*. They sometimes vow to offer an animal to a deity, and after offering its life to the deity, eat its flesh. They generally have a light breakfast (*nyāhri*) at home of *bhākri* (bread of unleavened dough) with some vegetable relish or *chutney*, and about noon their wives take to the place of work their launch of *bhākri* and vegetables, and either fish, flesh, or split pulse. At present it is more or less customary with rural population to have a cup of tea before or after breakfast. A supper of *bhākri* or *bhāt* (cooked rice), milk or some liquid preparation of pulse, is eaten at about eight in the evening.

The Kuṇbi's ordinary food is *jvāri bhākar,* (bread), vegetables, salt and chillies. In the western hills nāchṇī is used instead of *jvāri*. Rice is eaten very sparingly on account of its high price. Kuṇbis to the west of Kolhapur are found of *ambīl* (gruel), a preparation of fermented *nācṇī* flour and buttermilk. The same articles are generally eaten at midday and evening meals. In the *ghāṭmāthā* (pleateaus),

people eat rice, and in the *desh* (plain) instead of rice they use *jvārī* both in the form of bread and *kaṇyā* that is partially ground cooked *jvārī*. Along with this they eat curry made of vegetables, a little flour and pounded chillies and spices.

The staple food of well-to-do Kolhapur Marāṭhās is *poḷī* or *capātī* (wheat cakes), *bhāt* (rice), *varaṇa* (boiled split pulse), *tūp* (ghee or clarified butter), *bhājī* (vegetables) and *loṇacī* (pickles), *mūrāmbā* (jams, and condiments). Middle class families on ordinary days eat rice, millet *bhākrī* (bread), *sāmbhārē* (boiled liquid pulse seasoned with chillies, spices and salt), and pulse sauce. All eat flesh and fish. The well-to-do may eat mutton or fowl daily. Middle class families use them about once a week, while the poor use them only occasionally on *Dasarā* and *Śimagā*. At the houses of the well-to-do, the food is cooked and served generally by servants called *sovaḷkarīs* (clean men), and in middle and poor families the women cook and serve the food. Before dining orthodox Marāṭhās are careful to bathe and put on a fresh-washed cotton waist cloth. The elderly men of the house lay sandal, flowers and sweetmeats before the house-god, water the sweet basil, bow to the sun, and sip a little water in which basil leaf has been dipped. Men of the family sit in a line on *pāṭs* (low stools[1]) each with a fresh-scoured *tāmbyā* (metal water-pot) and a *pelā* (cup) to his right, and a metal or a leaf plate before him with one or two *vāṭīs* (cups), for sauce and clarified butter. At home a Marāṭhā generally eats with his shirt off; in company and on festive occasions he may dine without taking off any article of dress.

DRESS.

THE DRESS ENSEMBLE OF THE HINDUS OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, who could be included in the general category of Mahārāṣṭrians, is a blending of different items of dress shared in common with people all over India. The distinction of their dress lies not so much in the articles of wear as in the manner of wear. Apart from the dressware after European style, introduced through contact with British rulers for a considerable length of time and which is still in vogue among many educated urbanites, the following items of dress of the people may be said to have been indigenously evolved: Male lower garment :-- *Laṅgoṭi, laṅgoṭa, lāṅga, caḍḍi, pañcā dhotar, coḷaṇā, ijār, tumān, pyjamā, suravār*. Male upper garment :—*Uparṇī, śelā, sadarā, pairaṇ, bārābandī, banḍi, kudatē, koparī, danḍkī, kabjā, aṅgarakhā, ḍagalā, acakan, śervāni.*

Male head-dress :—*Ṭopī, pāgoṭē, pagaḍi, munḍāsē, rumāl, paṭakā, sāphā.*

Female dress :—*Coḷi, parakar, sāḍī, lugaḍē, pātaḷ, śāl, śālū, paiṭhaṇi.*

Child dress :—*Aṅgaḍē, galutē, jhabalē* for the trunk and *ṭoparē, kucaḍē, kuñcī* for the head.

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[1] Some families from the upper class have now-a-days taken to dining on tables.

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DRESS.

Male-dress.

The labouring and agricultural classes are neat and clean in their dress but seldom rich enough to indulge their taste for finery. The well-to-do are fond of gay clothes, the men wearing generally voluminous red and white turbans known as *rumāls* and *paṭkās* and women heavy coloured *lugaḍīs* (robes). The Kuṇbī rolls a loincloth (short *dhoti*) round his waist, covers his body with a waistcloth or a *kabjā* (armless jacket) or a *daṇḍkẽ* (vest) and a *sadarā* (shirt), and wears a turban on his head and a *pāitāṇ* (sandal) on his feet. In cold and wet weather he throws a *ghoṅgaḍī* (coarse blanket) over his shoulders, or ties it in a hood and draws it over his head. Besides being worn as articles of dress, the blanket and waist-cloth are used as sleeping mats and for carrying clothes and garden stuff.

The middle classes wear clothes of the same form as those worn by the rich but of cheaper quality. Indoors a well-to-do urbanite of an orthodox trend wears a *dhotar*, a *pairaṇa*, or a half-shirt, and either leaves his feet bare or sometimes walks on *khaḍāvas* (wooden clogs). The dhoti (about 50 inches wide and four or four and a half yards long) is generally worn in such a way that the left side portion is drawn up and tucked behind and the right side remainder is folded breadth-wise into a few pleats and tucked at the navel. It is customary for many people to fold the hind portion of the *dhoti* in pleats about three inches broad and tuck them behind tightly and flatly in a bunch. The front pleats are carefully smoothed and a few of them are taken up and tucked over the already tucked-up bunch at the navel. The well-to-do Marāṭhā usually wears indoors a *colṇā*, *ījār* or *tumān*. If he wears a waist-cloth it is short and the puckers in front and behind are few, the ends hanging and fluttering loose.

While going out a gentleman puts on a shirt or a *sadarā* over a muslin or knitted underwear, then sometimes a waistcoat (its use has now considerably dwindled) over it then an *uparṇẽ* (shoulder cloth); the use of this cloth has also considerably dwindled; a cap or a *rumāl* (headscarf) and on ceremonial occasion a *sāphā* or *paṭkā* (silk or cotton headscarf) is his head-dress. Now-a-days many persons wear out of doors a "Nehru shirt" with or without a *kabjā* (waist-coat) and a "Gandhi cap". Many men, particularly from among the educated, go out in a pair of trousers or *pyjamās* and a shirt, with a hat on or bare headed, and after carrying a walking stick. The wardrobe of the well-to-do young man may consist of all the items of the western-dress ensemble including the "bush shirt" and "bush coat" of recent origin. His outdoor dress varies between three types. (1) A *pyjāmā* and a long shirt of the "Nehru" type, or a pair of short-pant and a shirt, the two flaps of the shirt being allowed to hang loose on the shorts or being tucked inside them. (2) A pair of trousers in combination with a shirt or a half-shirt,

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Male-dress.

a bush-shirt or a bush-coat. The shirt is tucked underneath the trousers and its sleeves may be rolled up in a band above the elbow. (3) A full western suit including trousers, shirt, perhaps a waist-coat and a necktie. For ceremonial occasion he prefers to dress after Indian style in a *śervānī* or acakan and a *survār*. Among the urbanite young men it is now-a-days rare to find one wearing a *dhotar* which is in some evidence among the middle-aged.

Female-Dress.

The woman's dress is the full *Marāṭhā sāri* (robe) and the short sleeved *coḷī* (bodice) reaching to the waist covering both the back and chest the ends being tied in front. The *sāri* generally worn by elderly ladies is eight to nine yards in length and forty-five to fifty-two inches in width, and is known as *lugaḍē* in Marāṭhī. The mode of wearing the *sāri* favoured by ladies of the Brahmin and similar classes is with hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back-centre ; Marāṭhā ladies allow the *sāri* from the waist down to hang straight like a skirt and draw its end which covers the bosom and back over the head. *Sāris* of five to six yard length which are known as *sāḍīs* in Marāṭhī are getting popular with the younger urbanites and are worn in *golnesaṇ* (round mode of wear) fashion, over a foundation of *parkar* or *ghāgrā* (petticoat). They have discarded the old fashioned *coḷī* and taken to the use of brassiers, blouses, polkas, and jumpers. A reversion to new types of *coḷīs* in the form of blouses with low-cut necks, close-fitting sleeves upto the elbow, and revealing the region about the lower ribs for a space of one to three inches is noticed now-a-days. These changes, however, have not materially changed the general appearance of their dress.

Child-Dress.

A baby, whether a boy or a girl, wears a cap known as *topare* or *kucadē* or a *kuñcī* which is a cap and a frock together. For every day use of the baby *aṅgḍis* and *jhablis* (frocks) are sewn. When the baby grows three or four years old, round or folded caps for the head, *cadarā*, *paurāṇa* for the upper part and *caḍḍī*, *tumān* or *coḷṇā* for the lower part are sewn for the use of boys ; small gowns or *jhagās* and *parakars* (petticoats) are sewn for girls. Girls of eight or ten, if they do not persist in the wear of frocks, *parakars* and *coḷīs* (bodice), may start using a small robe or *sāḍī* without passing the end over her shoulder like a grown up woman.

ORNAMENTS.

THERE IS A WIDE DIFFERENCE between ornaments used by the urban and the rural people as also by the rich and the poor. Sometimes a caste-wise differentiation in the wear of ornaments persists. Ornaments also differ in type as used by men and women and by boys and girls. Ladies in the urban areas go

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in for light and delicate ornaments set in patterns of gold and precious stones. Rich ladies in the villages wear mostly solid gold ornaments. Ornaments used for the feet are made of silver. Poorer village-folks, wear ornaments made of silver, copper, brass, and stone and glass beads. In the making of ornaments now-a-days, the tendency to replace gold, silver and precious stones with alloys like 'yellow metal', artificial jewels and cultured pearls is on the increase. Due to enormous increase (over 400 per cent.) in the prices of precious metals like gold and silver since 1937, the use of these metals for the making of ornaments has considerably dwindled.

Male Ornaments.

It is no more a fashion now for men to wear ornaments extensively. However, a *sahukār* or *sarāf* may be found wearing a pearl earring called *bhikbāḷī*, a gold wristlet known as *pocī* and a gold necklace called *goph* or *kaṇṭhā*. A young man sometimes takes a fancy to wear round his neck a thin gold chain with a central locket. Persons wearing gold rings, called *pavitraka*, and *aṅgṭhīs* studded with pearls and precious stone (natural or artificial), are not rare. Buttons, links, studs, collar-pins, tie-pins, wrist watches made of precious metals and set with precious stones are often found in the wear of rich persons. *Rājkaḍyā*, *bhikbāḷī* and *caukaḍā* of gold as ear ornaments, *kaḍē* of silver for the wrist, *karagoṭā* of silver as a waist belt, are found in the wear of rustics.

Fashions in female ornaments have undergone considerable change during the last fifty years, the general tendency being towards avoiding gold ornaments of heavy weight. The following is the list of ornaments in the wear of well-to-do ladies at present :—

Female-Ornaments.

Head ornaments of any sort are now generally out of fashion. However, some old types like *mūd*, *agraphūl*, *ketkī-kevḍā gulābācē phūl*, *veṇī*, *rākhaḍī*, *bindī-bijor*, *candrā-sūrya*, *nāga-goṇḍe*, and *goṇḍe-phulē* (all made of gold) still persist to some extent.

Ear ornaments.—*Caukaḍī* and *kuḍē*, preferably of pearls and of precious stones, are still in vogue. Earrings of various types are now getting into fashion.

Neck ornaments.—*Maṅgaḷa-sūtra* of various types, the black beads being stringed together by different patterns of gold chain work, is now-a-days used as an ornament. Besides, necklaces

known as *candrahāra, capalāhāra, jondhli-pota, tandḷī-pota, bakulihāra, puspahāra, pohehāra, mohanmāla, putḷyācī māḷā, bormāḷa, kolhāpuri sāja, ekdāṇī sarī* and *vajraṭīka* (all made of gold) and *peṭyā, pota, laphphā, tanmaṇī* and *peṇḍē*, made of pearls, are in current use.

Hand ornaments.—*Kānkaṇē* (bangles) of patterns known as diamond, *hoḍīghāt, tinpailū, pañcpailū,* bilor, double-diamond, Calcutta pattern, Delhi pattern, Madras pattern and *paṭlyā* (wristlets) known as *toḍīcyā, purṇācyā, jāḷīcyā, pailūcyā, phāśyacyā* or *minyācyā*, all made of gold, are current. Costlier bangles studded with pearls, diamonds and precious stones are also in vogue among the rich families.

Armlets or *vākyās* of the types known as *rudragāth, tuḷabandī, haircya* and *modavakya* are still in wear

Nose ornaments.—*Nath, muraṇī, mugvaṭa* and *phulī, camkī,* made of pearls and studded with precious stones, are current.

Child Ornaments.

Child ornaments.—*Bindalyā, maṇagaṭyā, kaḍītoḍe, vāḷe* and *vāḷa, toraḍyā* and *sākhḷī, hasaḷī,* made either of gold or silver, are current.

CUSTOMS.

THE INFLUENCE OF WESTERN EDUCATION and the impact of modern concepts about social equality and justice, individual freedom and the place of religion in life have brought about in the course of the last half a century remarkable changes in the customs, manners, beliefs and the general sense of values of Indian society. The pace of change has been further accelerated and its direction crystallized by the operation of the new economic forces which as a result of the introduction of mechanical power have revolutionized the methods of production, given rise to large concentrations of population in urban areas and by the very nature of the conditions of work created by them helped in cutting across that social isolation which a caste system based purely on birth had imposed in the rigidly separated innumerable communal groups of which Indian society is made. As in every other sphere of life so also in social and religious matters, India has come out of a more or less static spell which had slowed down its vitality for a long duration and is at present passing through a period of striking transformation and transition. Examples of every phase of that evolutionary process, from the almost completely stagnent picture as presented by most of the backward classes and hill tribes to the stage of a degree of sophistication which attempts as complete a break from the past as possible are presented by the contemporary social panorama. The account given in the following pages has therefore to be related to the dynamics of transition, involving a little variation here and there in the completeness of its applicability. The details that are narrated would have as much a historical as a factual relevance and interest.

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HINDU CUSTOMS.

THE MAJOR PART OF THE CUSTOMS OF THE HINDUS consist of ritualistic practices related to various religious ceremonies known as *saṁskāras* (sacraments). These ceremonies which principally consist of purifying rites are conducted under the directions, according to orthodox practice, of a Brahmin priest. Regarding the exact number of these *saṁskāras* there is a great divergence of views among the *smṛti* writers. According to some, sixteen *saṁskāras* as they are *nitya* (usual) must be performed, and the rest twenty four as they are *naimittika* (special) ones are left to choice. They are observed by almost all castes above those that were traditionally considered to be the lowest. The chief of these customary rituals are those at birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. The *garbhādhāna* (girl-wife's coming of age) ceremony, which used to be once performed separately and with great pomp as girls were than married at an early age, has now become a part of the marriage rite and receives scant attention.

PREGNANCY AND BIRTH.

THE PROSPECT OF CHILD BIRTH is watched with anxiety and eagerness by the family and in her first pregnancy the young wife is treated with great care and tenderness both at her parent's and at her husband's. Her *ḍohāḷe* (longings), as they are believed to foreshadow and influence the characteristics and sex of the child, are fondly noticed and promptly satisfied by the family elders. She has to observe a number of taboos. Birthmarks and congenital defects in the child are often ascribed to the neglect of the *ḍohāḷe* (longings) and the non-observance of taboos. Because of her delicate condition she is considered particularly open to attacks of evil spirits and following the current folklore she complies with a number of do's and don't. The *gṛhyasūtras* prescribe for the benefit of the pregnant woman a number of observances of magico-religious nature and believers in the efficacy of vedic *saṁskāras* follow them to a varying extent.

For her first confinement the young wife generally goes to her parent's house. At the inception labour she takes to the lying in room which has been swept clean and kept warm, dim-lighted and free from draught. A midwife generally known to the family and engaged beforehand is called in and she attends the girl from then onwards for ten or more days.

After delivery, the position of the woman is not changed for sometime. After a while the midwife ties the childs umbilical cord with a cotton thread, a few inches away from navel and severs it with a knife. She touches with ashes the spot where the navel cord was cut and rubs the mother and child with turmeric and oil, bathes them in hot water, and swatches the child in cloth bandages. The after-birth is put in an earthen pot with a pice, a little turmeric and redpowder and buried in a hole in the mother's room. The mother is given butter and myrrh pills, and the child is dosed with a few drops of castor oil and honey. Myrrh-incense is burnt and waved all over and the mother is

purified by burning Embelia Ribes, *ovā* and *baḷantśepa* in the room. She, with her child beside her, is laid on the cot under which a small fire of live coal is set. Near the door of the room an earthen pot of cow's urine is set with a *nim* branch floating on it. That no evil spirit may come in with them, all visitors sprinkle a few drops of cow's urine on their feet before entering the room. The *bāḷantīṇa*, the mother as she is called for some days after parturition, is on special diet such as fine rice, butter, pepper, and warm water for the first two days and may revert to the usual one on the third day. A lamp is kept burning during the night. Next morning, after rubbing them with turmeric and oil, both mother and child are bathed, the mother is purified with *viṣeśa* (frank-incense), and the child is given a dose of caster oil. The mother takes some *nim* juice before meal.

On the third and fourth days, beyond bathing the mother in hot water, no ceremony takes place.

As a rule all rural communities are particular about the fifth or sixth day worship, as those days are believed to be full of danger to the new born child. They share the common belief that convulsive seizures and most other forms of disease are the work of spirits. They think that only by worshipping "Mother Fifth" and "Sixth" can the child be saved from the attacks of evil spirits which are said to hover about the lying-in-room lying in wait. Elderly matrons in the house take the utmost care to keep a light always burning in the lying-in-room day and night, especially from the fifth to the tenth day, and during that time never leave the mother alone in her room. On the fifth day a few friends and relations are asked to dine at the house. In the lying-in-room a betelnut, a sword[1] or sickle are set on a low stool and so are flowers and sandal-paste in the name of *Pāñcavī* (Mother-Fifth). The mother bows before the goddess with the child in her arms and prays Mother Fifth to save the child from the attacks of evil spirits. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper and a reed pen and ink are set on stool and *Saṭvai* or Mother Sixth is worshipped with the same details as Mother Fifth, and a few friends are feasted. The mother is held impure for ten days and no one except the mid-wife touches her. The family observes *suher* (ceremonial impurity) for the period. On the eleventh day, mother and child are given a purificatory bath, their clothes washed and the whole house is cleaned. The walls and the ground of the lying-in-room are smeared with a mixture of cowdung and water, the bathing place is washed and turmeric, red-powder, flowers and lighted lamp are laid near it. The midwife is presented with a *lugaḍē* and bodice and money. The mother is cleansed from impurity by a sprinkle of *tuḷaśī* water and men change their sacred threads.

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[1] The configuration varies according to the community. Marathas includ- a sword in the Panchavi worship.

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PREGNANCY AND BIRTH.

With the spread of education, the practice of sending women to nursing homes and lying in hospitals is becoming more and more popular and many of the old customs described above which used to be observed at home are not observed. The woman stays in the hospital for ten days, is looked after by qualified doctors and nurses and is generally discharged on the tenth or eleventh day.

Naming Ceremony.

On the evening of the twelfth, women friends are asked to the house, musicians play, the child is cradled and the naming ceremony or *bārsē* is celebrated[1]. The *karṇavedh* (piercing of the ear-lobes) ceremony may take place the same morning or may be postponed to the sixth or twelfth month. If a boy is subject to a vow, his right nostril is bored and a gold ring put into it.

The *caula* or *cūḍākarma* (the first cutting of the hair on the child's head) ceremony has a place in the Hindu *saṁskāras*, but its observance is not now much in vogue except among the more backward people.

THREAD-GIRDING.

THE THREAD-GIRDING CEREMONY or *muñja* as it is popularly known is prescribed for all Hindus claiming a place in the first three varṇas (caste groups). In essence it is a purificatory rite initiating a boy to *brahmacaryāśrama* (stage of student-hood).

A *kumāra* (boy) usually undergoes the *upanayana* or *mouñji-bandhana* (thread-girding) at the age of eight or after, eighth, eleventh and twelfth years from birth being considered the proper time for the ceremony. The *muhūrtas* (proper time) for thread-girding occur in the five months of Māgha, Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha and Jyesṭha. In any one of these months the astrologer chooses a lucky day, paying special attention to the month in which, the constellation under which, and the hour of the day at which, the boy was born.

Preparations.

Preparations begin a few days before the threadgirding day. Drummers and pipers to play at the ceremony are engaged The house is cleaned and white washed. A booth is raised in front of the house, and its posts are ornamented with plantain trees. mango twigs and flowers. On the werstern side of the booth an altar known as *bahulē* is raised facing east. Invitation letters marked with *kuṅkū* are sent to friends and kinspeople. Of them the more intimate ones give by turns, a week or two prior to the lucky day of the ceremony congratulatory feasts called *gaḍagners* or *keḷavans* to the boy and his family. A day or two before the thread-girding, an *akṣat* (invitation processing) consisting of the boy's parents and the family priest, first visit the local temple of Gaṇapati and pray to the god to be present at the ceremony with his two consorts Ṛddhi and Siddhi; they then go to the houses of select relatives and friends to give them personal invitation.

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[1] For the detailed description of the *barse* cermony *see* Poona District Gazetteer (1954) p. 85.

THREAD-GIRDING.
Preparations.

Early morning of the lucky day, musicians start playing on the drum and pipe and one of the priests sets up the *ghaṭikā* (water-clock). Then starts *ghaṇā* ceremony. Two *musaḷs* (pestles) are tied together with a new bodice cloth and a basket filled with wheat is set before the boy and his parents. Not less than five *suvāsinīs* (married women whose husbands are living) take the pestles in their hands, set them upright in the basket, and move them up and down as if to pound the wheat in the basket. They sign songs while music plays. A *suvāsinī* takes a handful of corn and grinds it in a hand mill to the handle of which a bodice cloth is tied.

Prior to the ceremony of *upanayana* proper, the usual propitiatory rites are gone through with the same procedural details as before the performance of a auspicious *saṁskāra*. Gaṇapati or Gaṇeśa and the Mātṛkās (Mothers) are worshipped, and *puṇyāhavācana* (the holy-day blessing) ceremony is performed. This is the time for near relations to give presents to the boy and his parents. After this, twenty-seven betelnuts representing the *nandis* (joy-bringing guardians) and six betelnuts representing the booth-guardians (*maṇḍapa-devatās*) are placed in a winnowing fan and worshipped with flowers and *kuṅkū*. The winnowing fan is carried into the house and laid in the family god-room. Brāhmaṇas, men and women, are fed and presented with money. Next the boy and his mother sit on two *pāṭs* (low stools) and amidst song and music are bathed by a band of young married women. *Āratī* (lighted lamps) is waved before them, and they go into the house. The ceremony of shaving the boy's head, except some locks and the top knot follows. The women of the family then roll *lāḍūs* (sweet balls) and coins down the boy's head into a handkerchief spread over his knees and they are given to the barber who retires with a present of a new turban or a kerchief, rice, betel and cocoanut. The boy is again bathed and taken to the dining hall. Boys called *baṭus*, girt with the sacred thread but not married, are seated in a row and served with food. They eat, and the boy's mother sitting in front of the boys and setting her son on her lap feeds him and herself eats from the same plate. This is called *mātṛbhojana* (the mother's meal). It is the last time when the boy and his mother eat from the same plate. As soon as the mother's meal is over the boy is taken to the barber who shaves all the locks that were left on his head except the top-knot. The boy is bathed and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

Matṛbhojana.

As the lucky moment draws near, the friends and kinspeople asked to the ceremony meet at the house and take their seats in the booth. The father sits on a *pāṭ* placed on the *vedī* with his face to the east. while the boy stands before him facing west, and the priests hold between them a curtain marked with a vermilion *svastika* (lucky cross). The boy's sister stands behind the boy with a lighted lamp and a cocoanut in her hands. The priests recite the *maṅglāṣṭakas* (lucky verses) and guests throw *akṣtās*

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Matrbhojana.

(rice mixed with *kuṅkū*) at the boy and his father. At the proper *muhūrta* (lucky moment), the priests stop chanting, the musicians redouble their noise, the curtain is pulled to the north and the boy lays his head on his father's feet. The father blesses him and seats him on his right. *Pān*, perfume and rosewater are distributed among the guests who then withdraw, usually receiving a present of a cocoanut each. It is now getting customary for the guests to make some present to the *baṭū* (boy) on this occasion.

Upanayana.

The *upanayana* ritual now begins. The priest and other Brahmins throw *akṣatā* over the boy's head and seat him on a *pāṭ* to the father's right. A *sthaṇḍila* (earthen altar) is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a *homa* (sacrificial fire) is kindled on it. The priest daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *laṅgoṭī* (loin-cloth) to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pañcā* (short waist-cloth) round his waist and a white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it, is hung on the left shoulder of the boy in the manner of a sacred thread. Offerings of *ājya* (ghee), sesamum, and seven kinds of *samidhās* (sacred fuel sticks) are made to the sacrificial fire. The boy is made to pass between the sacrificial fire and his father, sip three *ācamanas* and repeat texts. He then goes back between the fire and his father and takes his seat.

The *kumār* (boy) now with folded hands approaches the *ācārya* (preceptor-priest) and makes a request to initiate him into *brahmacaryāśrama* (stage of studenthood). The *ācārya* grants his request, hands over to him a consecrated *yajnopavita* (sacred thread) and a *daṇḍa* (staff) of *paḷas* and gives him general instructions as to how to acquire knowledge. The *ācārya* then takes the *kumār* out to see the sun and makes him repeat a prayer to the sun.

The principal sacrifice of the ceremony is then gone through. The *ācārya* makes four offerings of *samidhā* (sacred fuel sticks) to the fire and then the *kumar* makes an offering of one *samidha* and then wipes off his face thrice with words purporting "I anoint myself with lustre and may Agni and Indra bestow on me insight, offspring and vigour.". The *ācārya* concludes the sacrifice with the final oblations, and sprinkles sacred water over the head of the *kumār* and towards all directions. The *ācārya* and the *kumār* both then stand and offer prayer to *Yajnadevatā* (sacrificial god). The *kumār* bends his knees, embraces the teacher's feet and requests him to recite the *Gāyatrī* (sacred verse) and the *ācārya* recites *pada* (syllable) by pada the *Gāyatrī* verse and makes the *kumār* repeat it syllable by syllable. The *ācārya* then advises the student how to behave in his career of studentship, and tells him of the rules and observances to be followed by a *bramhacārī* (student).

Money presents are made to the priests, who then bless the "student" and the father.

In the evening the *bhikṣāvaḷa* (begging procession consisting of relatives and friends) goes to the temple of Gaṇapati with music and fireworks etc. The boy who is attended by his priest bows before the god and the procession returns home The boy is then seated near the altar, the priest sits near him, and places a *rovaḷī* (bamboo basket) or a *sūp* (winnowing fan) before him. The mother of the boy comes and stands before him near the altar. The boy says to her in Sanskrit, "*Bhavati bhikṣām dehi* (Lady, give me alms)", and holds the bamboo basket before her. The mother blesses him and puts sweet balls, rice and coco-kernel into the basket Other married women follow her example; the boy repeats the same words to each, and each presents him with sweet balls or money. The contents of the bamboo basket go to the priest who gives part of the sweetmeats to the boy and keeps the rest for himself.

Medha-janana.

The last rite of the *upanayana* ceremony is *medhā-janana* A small square earthen mound is raised and a *paḷas* branch is planted in it. The *kumār* pours water round the plant, prays *Medhā*, the goddess of mind, to give him knowledge and wealth.

The *upanayana* ceremony often used to last for as many as four days in olden times. Now, however, it is generally only a one day affair. At the end as at beginning of the ceremony the "betelnut Gaṇapati" and the "metal pot Varuṇa" are invoked and then bowed out, and the back of the *sūp* (winnowing fan) is beaten with a stick to show that the ceremony is over and that it is time for friends and kinsfolk to leave. The boy is now a *bramhacāri* (an unwed student) and from now on for some years should learn the *vedas* at the feet of his *guru* and completing his study, undergo the *samāvartana* (return) ceremony. But, according to the present custom the *samāvartana* or the *soḍa muñja* ceremony follows immediately or very soon after the *upanayana*, The boy discards the *muñj* (triple sacred-grass waistcord) and his *laṅgoṭī* (loincloth), puts on a silk-bordered waistcloth, a coat, a shoulder-cloth, a *jari* cap, and a pair of shoes. takes an umbrella, and sets out as if on a journey to Kāshi (Benaras). The priest or the boy's maternal uncle as may be the custom meets him on the way and promises to give him his daughter in marriage so that the boy may marry and become a *gṛhastha* (householder).

MARRIAGE.

ACCORDING TO HINDU PHILOSOPHY, marriage is among the most significant and most sacred obligations of human life. In the orthodox Hindu view, marriage is not a contract but a sacrament which is indissoluble; the union represented by marriage must be strictly confined to members of the same caste and even the same sub-caste; within the caste limitation, it must not take

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place between members of the same *gotra* or something like an enlarged family clan. There must be at least a minimum degree of astrological agreement, as determined by the position of the stars, between the horoscopes of the would-be bride and the bridegroom. Marriages must be solemnized only during particular months of the year and on particular days and at particular hours which may be indicated to be auspicious according to the horoscopes. Apart from these religious injunctions and inhibitions, there came to be built up over many generations, in connection with marriages, very elaborate social customs and practices which became an integral and indispensable part of the whole ceremony. The celebrations lasted generally for a week and often longer. Such prolonged festivities were in keeping with, and probably the consequence of, the leisurely atmosphere of the spacious days before the advent of the industrial revolution when life did not present many complex problems.

With the intellectual ferment and spirit of questioning generated by the emphasis on reason and scientific analysis in modern education, and in the context of the tremendous tempo and tensions of the industrial age, many of the old institutions as well as social customs and practices appeared to be both unfair and insipid and contrary to the new values which were taking the place of the old ones in the minds of the educated people. Public opinion gradually but unmistakably underwent a change which was reflected in the new attitude to social reform and in the new social laws enacted by popular legislatures. Child marriage has been abolished. The justice and the desirability of incorporating a small degree of contractual content even in holy wedlock was recognized and divorce under certain extreme circumstances is now permitted, though actual dissolutions of marriages consequent on such permission are very infrequent. Freedom to marry outside the caste had been conceded by law long ago. But it is only recently that hostility to such marriages has lost its former agressiveness and unbearable sting. Marriages of persons belonging to different subcastes of the same caste have now become a routine affair. Marriages of persons belonging to different castes have eased to create much of a sensation or lead to social ostracism. Not that such intermarriages have become a common occurrence. They are still comparatively rare. But the critics' angle of vision in regard to them has now more the substance of indifference and apathy rather than of bitter antagonism as in the past. Beyond rousing some curiosity and probably some inconsequentional criticism, they have ceased to produce, at least in urban areas, any grave repercussions to the detriment of the marrying couple or their relatives.

THE MARRIAGE CUSTOMS of the so-called higher and lower caste groups among Hindus do not differ in important details. In case of the former the service is conducted according to *Vedic*

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and in the latter according to *Paurāṇic* ritual. Following is a description of the usual ceremonies which obtain among so-called higher Hindu castes in general and among Marāṭhās in particular.

Marriage rules.

According to the orthodox way of life, rules of endogamy prohibit marriage outside the *varṇa* or *jāti* (caste or sub-caste); rules of exogamy prohibit marriage between *sapiṇḍas, sagotras* and *sapravaras*. Brahmins claim *gotras* and *pravaras* and abide by *gotra* and *pravara* exogamy. Marāṭhās (*assal*) claim *kuḷī* (stock) or *devak* (marriage guardians) as well as *gotras*, but among them sameness of *gotra* is not necessarily a bar to marriage, the chief restrictions in this respect being sameness of kuḷī and devak. Many non-Brahmin communities have *kuḷī*, *devak* and surnames as exogamous divisions. The prohibited degrees of kindred for marriage beyond the agnates vary according to the custom of the community. As regards cross-cousin unions, except that of the brother's daughter with the sister's son, which is tolerated or even preferred among many, other types are generally disallowed. Marriage with a wife's sister is allowed and a brother may marry his brother's wife's sister. Polygamy, which was once allowed and practised, is now prohibited by law.[1]

Marriage Settlement.

Marriage settlements may be of five different types. In (1) *sālankṛta kanyādāna*, the bride's father, besides the ornaments he gives to his daughter, stands all the marriage expenses, including those on journeys of both the sides. In (2) *kanyādāna* the expenses of the bride's father are much restricted. In the (3) *varapakṣa-vadhūpakṣa* form, the parties bear their own expenses, stand each other's *mānapāna* (exchange of honorific gifts) and bridegroom's party gives a *rasabhoga* (feast) to all villagers. In the (4) *huṇḍā* form of marriage, the girl's father pays a bridegroom-price to the boy's father, while in the (5) *deja* form the proposal of marriage comes from the boy's father who has to pay a *deja* (bride-price) to the girl's father

Marriage Ceremonies.

The marriage consists of the following ceremonies :-

Magani.

Māgaṇī (proposal).--Among the poor and backward communities it is customary for the boy's father or a near relation to initiate the marriage negotiations while, in the case of the well-to-do they are usually initiated by the girl's party. If there be no objections on the count of marriage rules, the two fathers

[1] Social usage in relation to these marriage rules is being considerably affected by recent legal enactments, namely (1) the Child Marriage Restraint Act XIX of 1929, as amended by (Act 19 of 1938) which prohibits marriages of boys under 18 yeas of age, and girls under 14 years of age; (2) the Hindu Marriage Disabilities Removal Act (XXVIII of 1946), which validates marriages between parties (a) belonging to the same *gotra* or *pravara* or (b) belonging to different sub-division of the same caste; and now (3) the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 which abrogates and modifies all the past laws.

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consult an astrologer or the family priest over the compatibility of the birth-stars of their wards. That dignitary favouring the proposed union, they discuss and come to a mutual understanding about the marriage terms. The auspicious day for a betrothal is fixed and a betelnut is broken and distributed among the assembled as a token of the marriage settlement

Sakharpuda.

Sākharpuḍā or *Sākarsāḍī.*—On the appointed day the boy's father or a close relative of his, with kins-people and friends, visits the girl's house to present her with a *sāḍī* or *lugaḍē* and bodice and an ornament befitting his means. Five suvāsinīs (unwindowed married women) mark the girl's forehead with *kuṅkū,* deck her with the ornaments and present the dress, and this marks the *sākharpuḍā* ceremony. The guests are treated to a dinner at which *puranpoḷī* is served.

Tila.

Ṭiḷā.—A few days later, the girl's kins-people pay a visit to the boy's for the *ṭiḷā* ceremony and present him with a *pāgoṭē* or *rumāl* (turban), an *uparṇē* (shoulder-cloth) and a gold ring. The boy's forehead is marked with a *ṭiḷā*—the auspicious sign—and the girl's close relations are presented with "turbans of honour". These two ceremonies—*sākharpuḍā* and *ṭiḷā*—constitute the betrothal.

Patrika pujana.

Patrikā-pūjana.—The priests of the bride and the bridegroom write on separate pieces of paper the auspicious moments for the marriage and the turmeric rubbing, as well as the names of the bride and the bridegroom. Gaṇapatī is worshipped and the bride's priest hands over the paper written by him to the bridegroom's with a blessing, and *vice versa.*

Aksat.

Akṣat.—The family gods and the gods of the local place, generally Gaṇapatī and some goddess, are specifically invited to the marriage by placing a few rice grains before them and praying for their presence. With the well-to-do it is customary to take out a procession, with relatives and friends, and headed by drum-beaters, pipers etc. for giving forward invitation to the local god and goddess.

Ghana.

Ghāṇā.—This ceremony is performed in the marriage pandals of both the bride and bridegroom. A turmeric root, some wheat, and a betel-nut are tied in a piece of new cloth to the handle of a *jātē* (grinding stone) by married unwidowed women. Next the women grind some wheat and turmeric by the hand-mill, singing songs. Two wooden pestles are then tied together with a piece of new cloth containing a turmeric root, a betelnut and a little wheat. Some wheat is put into a bamboo basket, and pounded with these pestles. The provisions for the marriage are supposed to be prepared after this ceremony has been performed, but in practice this rule is not scrupulously

observed. The *jātē* (grinding stone) used for this turmeric grinding must not be used again till the marriage ceremony is over.

Halad and Telavan.

Halad and *Telavan*: A party of *suvāsinīs* (married unwidowed women) from the boy's house go with music to the girl's house taking turmeric paste, articles of dress, etc. The girl is sprinkled over with oil by a washer-woman, and then the woman selected for the turmeric rubbing rubs her with turmeric paste, and she is bathed. Next the girl is presented with a new yellow *sāḍī* or *lugaḍē* and bodice and ornaments which she puts on. What remains of the turmeric paste and oil is taken with music to the bridegrooms'. The boy is rubbed with it by the same woman who rubbed the girl and he is bathed. A yellow dress is presented to him by the girl's father, which he has to wear when he starts for the marriage.

Mandapa-pratistha and Devaka-pratistha.

Maṇḍapa-pratiṣṭhā and *Devakapratiṣṭhā*: On the marriage day or on the day previous a number of propitiatory rites are gone through both at the bride's and the bridegroom's. They consist of — (1) *Gaṇapati-pūjana*, (2) *Puṇyāhavācana*, (3) *Nāndi-śrāddha* and (4) *Gṛhamakha*. Of these, the *gṛhamakha* may be performed even after the marriage ceremony is over.

A spot in the marriage booth is cow-dunged and on the spot *suvāsinīs* trace a *rāṅgoḷī* (quartz powder) square and inside arrange three *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) in a line and cover them with rich velvet or red woollen carpet. The bride or bridegroom, and the parents of the party bathe, dress in rich clothes and seat themselves on the *pāṭs* facing east. Next, if any *saṁskāras* (ceremonies) which ought to have been performed, performed on the boy or the girl but were not performed, they are made to undergo a *prāyaścitta* (penance). The father of the boy or the girl then says "I am going to marry my son/daughter named — in order to be free from the debt to gods and ancestors, and to continue the performance of righteous deeds, and to propagate offspring fit to perform the deeds". The ceremonies of *Gaṇpatipūjana* (worship of Gaṇapatī), *Puṇyāhavācana* (holy-day blessing) and *Nāndiśrāddha* are then performed.

Veer

Veer: This ceremony is performed by only those Marāṭhās in whose families one or more celebrated warriors have lost their lives on the battle-field. An elderly male member belonging to a *kūḷ* different from that of the party to be married is made to take part of the *veer* (warrior). He is taken with music to the bank of river. The seven *Apsarās* (water nymphs) are worshipped, and the Veer is also worshipped and presented with a dress. The Veer puts on the dress and holds a sword in his hand. He is then brought back to the house accompanied by music. On his way back, red powder is constantly thrown on his body. At the entrance to the house, rice mixed with curds

and a cocoanut are waved near the person of the *Veer*. Next, the sword in his hand is taken and placed near the house-gods. The Veer has to remain in the house till the end of the marriage ceremonies.

Anusthan.

Anuṣṭhān.—In order that the marriage may pass off without any inauspicious occurrence, prayers in propitiation of Ganapatī, the family deity, Mṛtyuñjaya and the ill-favoured stars of the party are held through the medium of priests. These prayers commence on the day of the installation of the *devak* and continue till the end of the marriage. Sometimes the prayers are offered before the commencement of the marriage.

Vagdan.

Vāgdān.—This ceremony takes place in the pandal at the girl's house. The boy's father accompanied by a party of men and women goes sometimes with music, to the girl's house. After they are seated, the girl, dressed in rich clothes, is brought and seated on a *pāṭ*. The boy's father gives into her hand a cocoanut and a betel-leaf packet and says thrice to her father "I shall accept your daughter in marriage for my son". The girl's father says thrice to him "Accept". Both of them then worship each other and the ceremony is over.

Gadagner.

Gāḍagner or *Keḷvan.*—This ceremony takes place, both at the boy's and the girl's house. It consists of offering cooked food to the family god and then feasting relations and friends. After dinner is over, the boy and the girl are presented with articles of dress by their respective family members and close friends.

Varadhava.

Varadhāvā—When the time for marriage draws nears, the bridegroom is dressed in the yellow dress presented to him by the girl's father at the time of the *haḷad* (turmeric-rubbing) ceremony. His brow is decked with the *bāśiṅg* (marriage coronet), his left cheek is touched with lamp-black, and he carries in his hand a dagger or poniyard with a lemon stuck on its point. He must not part with the dagger till the marriage is over. He then rides a horse or is seated in a car. Musicians walk in front, and behind them walk all the men of the party, followed by the bridegroom. Behind the bridegroom walks his sister holding the *śakundivā* (lucky lamp) laid in a dish, and another woman follows her with a metal or earthen pot called *śenskarā* holding rice, betelnut and water, and covered with a mango branch and a cocoanut set on a heap of rice in a bamboo basket. Other ladies and women servants follow. The party halt at the place (generally a temple) fixed upon for performing the *sīmāntapūjana* (worship at the boundary). Then, the bridegroom's brother or a male relative rides the groom's horse and with music goes to the girl's house to announce the bridegroom's arrival. For acting this part he is called *varadhāvā* (groom's messenger) and is treated to a dinner and presented with a turban by the girl's father. Next, the *varadhāvā* goes back with the

girl's party to where the boy has stopped. The boy is worshipped by the girl's father (*sīmāntapūjana*) and the combined party starts for the girl's house for the marriage. On reaching the bride's house, one or two *suvāsinīs* pour water on the hoofs of the horse on which the bridegroom has come. The bridegroom then dismounts and the priest throws *jirē* (cumin seed) on the booth. The bride's mother meets him at the entrance of the marriage booth with a dish holding two wheat flour lamps, waves small rice balls and wheat flour lamps round the bridegroom, throws the rice balls to one side and lays the wheat flour lamps at the bridegroom's feet; another *suvāsinī* pours a dish full of water mixed with lime and turmeric on his feet. The bridegroom presents the woman with a *sāḍī* or *lugaḍē* and bodice, the bride's father hands the bridegroom a cocoanut and leads him by the hand to a place prepared for him near the *bahulē* (altar). The guests are welcomed to their seats in the marriage hall where musical entertainments are kept in progress. The family priest is busy watching the time by his water-clock (*ghaṭikāpātra*) and noting the approach of the auspicious moment for marriage.

Gauriharpuja.

Gaurihārapūjā: In the meanwhile, a pata (rectangular stone slab) and a *varavanṭā* (cylindrical shaped curry stone) are placed near the house gods, pictures of Gauri and Hara are drawn over the slab with turmeric powder and nearby a dish filled with rice grains is placed to represent Indrāṇī. The girl bathes, puts on a new *lugaḍē and* bodice, worships the Gauri-hār and Indrāṇī, and sits there till the wedding time.

Vivaha.

Vivāha (marriage): Shortly before the lucky moment arrives, the girl's father worships the paper on which the lucky moment for the marriage has been written. Next, two small heaps of rice grains are made near the marriage altar by the priest, and a cloth with a central cross mark is held between the heaps. The bridegroom stands on one heap facing west and the bride is brought and made to stand on the other heap facing east. A mixture of rice grains, *jirē* (cumin seed) and sugar is given into the hands of both. The maternal uncles of the bride and bridegroom stand behind them with naked swords[1] crossed over their heads. The priests stand on either side of the curtain and tell the pair to look at the lucky cross and pray to their family gods. The priests recite auspicious verses and throw rice (mixed with *kuṅkū*) on both. One of the priests hands red rice to the guests, which they throw over the bride and the bridegroom at the end of each verse. When the auspicious moment arrives, the astrologer claps his hands, the *śiṅgī* (horn-blower) blows his horn, guns are fired and musicians play. The priests draw aside the curtain and the bride and bridegroom throw a little of the mixture of the rice grains, etc., over each other's heads. Next some *mantras* are repeated and they again throw rice over each other's heads thrice or five times.

[1] A custom peculiar to Marathas and communities who call themselves *Kshtriyas*.

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Madhupark.

Madhuparka : Next, the bride's father and mother sit on two low wooden stools in front of the bridegroom face to face; the father washes the feet of the boy and the mother pours water over them. The father then worships the bridegroom and pours *madhuparka* (honey and curds mixed together) over his hands. The bridegroom throws to the four points of the compass a few drops of the *madhuparka* and also sips a little of it. If the girl's father has former sons-in-law, the *madhuparka* is performed first on them and then on the bridegroom.

Kanyadan.

Kanyādān: Next, the hands of the bride and bridegroom are joined by the girl's father, a pot of bell metal is held under them by the priest and the girl's mother pours water with some coins in it over their clasped hands. This completes the *kanyādān* (girl-giving). The bride's father then presents the bridegroom with clothes, ornaments, vessels, etc. Next the priest sprinkles water over the couple, reciting *mantras* and the bride and bridegroom throw grains of rice over each other and put garlands round each other's neck. *Suvāsinīs* on the girl's side then seat the couple facing east and the girl is given a *sāḍī* or *lugaḍē*, a bodice, an upper garment and a lucky necklace, all of which she puts on. The boy ties another lucky necklace round her neck and puts ornaments on her person. Gaṇapatī is worshipped and money is distributed to Brāhmans by both parties. The priest then worships five betelnuts and ties them into the upper garments of the bride and bridegroom. These betelnuts are thus kept separate till the marriage is over. The hems of their garments are then tied into a knot by the priest, blessings are invoked upon them by elderly persons on both sides, and the couple worship Lakṣmī, Indrāṇī and Pārvatī.

The guests in the hall are presented with betelnut and betel-leaves, flowers and fragrant cotton sticks called phāyās and take leave soon after the *kanyādān* is over.

Vivahahoma and Saptapadi.

Vivāhahoma and *Saptapadī* : The *vivāhahoma* (marriage sacrifice) is next performed on the *bahulē* (marriage altar). The altar is a square, the length of its sides being four, five, or seven times the span of the girl's hand. Its height is one cubit from the ground. It has steps and over it is raised a small canopy. It is decorated with plantain trees, flowers, leaves, etc. The bride and bridegroom are seated on two *pāṭs* set on the altar, the bride on the bridegroom's left. The bride's father stands near them, holding parched grains of rice, sesame seed, etc. The sacrificial fire is lit and fed with parched grains of rice, clarified butter, sesame seed, cotton sticks of *paḷas* (butea frondosa) or other *samidhās* (sacred wood) with an appropriate ritual. The bride's brother squeezes the bridegroom's ear and is presented with a garment. The couple then leave their seats, walk seven times from right to the left round the sacred fire, and the *saptapadī* is over.

Vivahahoma and Saptapadi.

Kankaṇs or marriage wristlets are then tied to the wrists of the couple, the knot of the hems of their garments untied and they are shown the *Dhruva* (Pole Star). Next they bow before the family gods and the day's proceedings are over. With the performance of the rites of *pāṇigrahaṇa*, going round the *vivāha-homa* and *saptapadī*, the Hindu marriage is considered to be final and irrevocable. The concluding ceremony is *varāt*, the homeward return of the bridegroom with the bride in a procession. *Varat* may take place the same night or a day or two after. Till then the bridegroom stays at the bride's and is feasted and a number of popular ceremonies by way of marriage rejoicing follow.

Ambavan and Rukhavat.

Aṁbavaṇ and *Rukhavat* : On the following morning women from the boy's house take *āṁbavaṇ* (leavings of food, vegetables and roots mixed in water which is generally given to cattle) to the girl's house, and give it to the girl's mother as a jest. Then women from the girl's house take *rukhavat* or sweetmeats with music to the boy's house. The *rukhavat* consists of two kinds of dishes, one for show and one for use. The show-dishes contain sugar-coated betelnuts and sweet balls as large as or larger than unhusked cocoanuts; the dishes for use are of ordinary size and are prepared with great care. The *rukhavat* is sometimes taken to the boy's house at the time of his starting for the marriage. He is seated on a low stool set in a wheat square and the sweet dishes are arranged in rows about the stool. The bridegroom is presented with a turban, his brow is marked with vermilion to which grain is stuck, lights are waved about him by *suvāsinīs* and he is told to help himself to the dishes.

In the old days when boys and girls were married at a very young age, parents and other elders of the family derived considerable enjoyment by making the newly wedded bride and bridegroom pass through funny situations. With a considerable increase in the age of marriage of both boys and girls the practice has almost completely disappeared.

Sunmukhadarshan.

Sunmukhadarśan: In the evening the boy's mother performs the ceremony of *Sunmukhadarśan* (seeing the daughter-in-law's face). The bride's mother accompanied by music and women friends, asks the bridegroom's mother to her house, whereupon, accompanied by her own kinswomen and friends, the family priest and music, the bridegroom's mother returns the call, taking bamboo baskets, sesame seed, gram balls, betelnuts, cocoanut kernels, dates, a *lugaḍē* or *sāḍī*, a bodice, ornaments, sweetmeats and fruit. At the girl's the priest worships the betel nut Ganapatī and the waterpot Varuṇa, and the boy's mother dresses the girl in the clothes she has brought and sweetens her mouth with sugar.

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Airani.

Airaṇī or *Zāl*: It is a ceremony of presenting *airaṇī* to the boy's mother by the girl's father. A piece of cloth is spread in a big bamboo basket, and 16 dry dates, 18 cocoanut kernels, 16 turmeric lamps (a big one surrounded by 15 smaller ones), 16 betelnuts, cooked food, fruits, coins and 2 jars filled with water with gold in them, are set upon the cloth. This is called *airaṇī*. The girl's father worships, first the boy's parents and his kinsfolk, and then *Umāmaheśwar* who is supposed to be present in the *airaṇī*. Next, he presents the *airaṇī* to the boy's mother by pouring water on her hand.

The *airaṇī* is then set on the heads of the nearest male and female relations of the boy and they are presented with articles of dress. When this is over, the girl is seated on the laps of the boy's parents and of his relations and friends. On this day the girl's parents have to fast till this ceremony is over.

Varat.

Varāt: After the *airaṇī* is over, the bride and bridgroom go into the god-room, bow to the gods and to their parents, and start in procession for the boy's house. On reaching there, an image of Lakṣmī made of wheat flour is worshipped, milk is offered to the goddess and the bridegroom's mother first makes the boy and then the girl drink some of the milk. The girl is then given a new name, which is told to the party assembled. Sugar, betelnut, betel-leaves are distributed and the party disperses. Next the girl and the boy's mother are served food on one plate from which they feed one another, and the ceremony ends.

Devakutthapana.

Devakotthāpana or the unshrining of the *devak*, is the closing rite of the marriage. It is performed on the 2nd, 4th, 5th 7th. 8th or 10th day of marriage. The details are the same as are observed in installing the *devak*. When it is over, the priest and other Brahmans are worshipped, feasted and presented with articles of dress and money.

Marāṭhās and other non-Brahmin communities give two sorts of dinners to their marriage guests, *goḍī* (sweet) and *khaṭṭī* (sour). The *goḍī* feast (a feast of sweet dishes without any flesh) is given before and the *khaṭṭī* (which chiefly consists of flesh dishes) after the *devakotthāpanā* ceremony.

Many of the ceremonies described above have either ceased to be performed or are performed in a very attenuated manner at the present time. During the last twenty-five or thirty years, conditions of life and thought have enormously changed. There has been a considerable spread of education and reorientation of values. The age of marriage of boys and girls has appreciably risen. The economy of the country has undergone a transformation, resulting in increased urbanization, overcrowding in cities and a much faster tempo of day to day working life. The old elaborate and leisurely ritual, whether

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religious or social, connected with an event like a marriage is found to have no relevance in the altered circumstances. Attempts have been made to rationalize and abridge the whole ceremonial. What is described as the Vedic form of marriage has now come to be evolved and has become very common, particularly among the educated classes. It confines itself to religious rites which are absolutely essential according to the Hindu concept of Dharma to solemnize a marriage and does not take more than about an hour and a half to complete. Only very near relatives and close personal friends are invited to be present at the ceremony. The social part of the function is generally confined to the giving of a dinner or a reception to which is invited a wider circle of relatives and friends. More often than not the whole festivity is finished in a day.

FUNERAL.

HINDUS GENERALLY CREMATE THEIR DEAD. When a person is on the point of death, his son or his wife lays the dying man's head on his or her right knee and lets a few drops of water fall into his mouth. A small piece of gold may also be put into the dead mouth, and after an hour or two when friends and neighbours have come the dead body is bathed in water heated on a hearth set in front of the house. To carry the body a ladder-like bier is made of two poles, six or seven feet long, with three or four small cross pieces. Two new earthern pots, a large one for water and a small one for fire, *gulāl* (red powder), betel leaves and a cloth about seven and a half feet long are bought from the market or village cloth shop. Cowdung cakes and fire-wood are sent to the burning ground which is generally on the river bank.* Except the face the body is covered with a new waist-cloth and a cord is passed several times round the body to secure the cloth firmly. Betel leaves and *gulal* (red powder) are sprinkled over it and a basil leaf is put in the mouth and some rice, a copper coin and the quarter of a cake are laid beside the body. Four kinsmen of the deceased bear the body and the son baths and walks in front carrying the fire pot on a triangular frame fastened to a sling. When they reach the burning ground they raise a pile of four layers of cowdung cakes. They then take off the waistcloth, cut the thread tied round the wrist and loosen the loincloth. The body is laid on the pyre and is covered with other layers of cakes. When the mouth is being covered the son pours a little water into it The son sets fire to the pyre, bathes, brings water in the large earthern pot, and stands at the head of the pyre. Another person comes and with a small stone makes a hole in the earthern pot. As the water spouts from the pot, the son goes five times round the pyre and at the end throws the pot on the ground at the head of the pyre and calls aloud, beating his mouth with the back of his hand. He then goes and sits among the other men without

*In several places the municipality makes arrangements to provide a hand-cart to carry the dead body and its use for that is not uncommon.

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touching them. After a short time the sound made by the bursting of the skull is heard and the chief mourner and others, at least the four bearers, bathe. The stone with which the earthen pot was pierced is kept with great care somewhere in the burning place and the funeral party returns home. In the evening after the funeral, a lighted lamp is set on the spot where the deceased breathed his last.

On the morning of the third day the son with some friends and relatives goes to the burning ground and from the spot where the body was burnt he takes the ashes except one bone which he puts aside and throws them into the nearest river. If he is rich, he gathers the bones from the ashes and afterwards takes them to a holy river. When the *rākhsāvadaṇē* (ash-gathering) is over, the son and the other mourners bathe and return home. On the tenth day all the household bathe and wash their clothes in the river; and the son shaves his moustache and bathes. While a Brāhman recites verses the son washes with cow-urine, the *jiv-khaḍā* (life-stone) and the bone he kept, prepares ten balls and three little banners made of ochre-coloured cloths, each tied to a stick. The Brahman is given some money, shoes, and in old days sometimes even a cow, presents which are supposed to help the deceased on his way to heaven. After preparing the offering balls the son sits at a distance so that crows may come and eat them. If a crow touches them soon after they have been laid out, the deceased is supposed to have died with no unfulfilled wish. If crows do not touch the balls, the son and his relations promise to fulfil the dead person's wish, and when the promise is given the crows are believed to fall on the offering and eat it. After this is over, the son and the other mourners bathe and return home.

On the eleventh day, the family which since the death is supposed to have been impure, is cleansed by using the five products (*pañcagavya*) of the cow. On the twelfth day a highly complex ritual known as *sapiṇḍī śrāddha* is performed. By virtue of this ritual, the deceased who has been a *pret* (ghost) so far changes into *pitr* (father or guardian spirit) and unites with the mourners' *pitāmaha* (grandfather) and *prapitāmaha* (great grandfather). On the thirteenth day the *śrāddha* is performed in the name of the dead and friends and kinsfolk are treated to a dinner. The anniversary of the death is kept by a *śrāddha*, when friends and relatives are asked to dine at the house. The deceased is remembered every year in *mahālaya-pakṣa*, the dark half of *Bhādrapada*, on a day corresponding to the day of decease.

It must be added that the rites described above are not strictly observed in every detail now a days by many people, particularly in the educated sections of the community. There is a distinct tendency to reduce the funeral ritual and to dispense with the *śrāddha* ceremony.

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RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND PRACTICES.

THE RELIGIOUS LIFE OF THE ORTHODOX HINDU is mainly governed by the tradition of the caste-group to which one belongs, though the influence of even that tradition is tending to diminish appreciably with the spread of education. Of the several sections of Brahmans, Deshasthas and Konkanasthas are found in considerable number in Kolhapur. Deshasthas belong to two main classes. Ṛgvedis and Yajurvedis. Ṛgvedis are divided into Smārtas and Vaiṣṇavas, and Yajurvedis into followers of the Śukla (white) and of the Kṛṣṇ (black) Yajurved. Madhyandins who are found in small numbers in all parts of Kolhapur are a sub-division of Yajurvedi Deshasthas and have two sections, Vajasaneyas and Kaṇvas. They are said to have got the name because while other Deshasthas performed their *sandhyā* (twilight worship) at sunrise they as a rule performed it at mid-day. Konkanasthas, who are next to Deshasthas in number are divided into Ṛgvedis, Āśvalāyans and Apastambas or Hiraṇyakeśis. They belong to two *śākhās* (branches), Śākala and Taittiriya. The *sūtra* (ritual) of the Śākala branch is that composed by the seer Āśvalāyana and that of the Taittiriya branch is that by the seer Hiraṇyakeśī As followers of *Vedic* observances these Brāhmanas when they call themselves Apastambas or Ṛgvedis, it means their rites are regulated either by texts written by the sage *Āpastamba* of *Kṛṣṇa Yajurveda* or by the next of *Ṛgveda*.

Smārtas are followers of Śaṇkarācārya, the apostle of the doctrine that the soul and the universe are one; and Vaiṣṇavas who are mainly Bhāgvatas, that is, followers of the Bhāgavata Purāna, hold the doctrine that the soul and the universe are distinct. Those Deshasthas who are Vaiṣṇavas are known as Mādhva Brāhmans or followers of Madhvācārya (A.D 1238 to 1317) whose chief mission was to preach the reality and dependence of the universe composed of cit (souls) and *acit* (matter) upon the Supreme Soul (*parmātmā*) God Viṣṇu, and *amala bhakti* (pure devotion) to Viṣṇu is the means of emancipation for the souls from the whirlpool of births and deaths and of enjoying the highest bliss that is their own. Besides the allegiance they owe to the Vedas and *dharma-sūtras* and the faith they have in a particular religious sect, Brahmins worship a number of family gods and abide by some traditional beliefs. For instance, the family gods of Deshasthas are Ambābai of Kolhapur, Bāṇśhankarī of Badāmi, Durgā, Gajānana, Jogeshwari, Jotibā of Vadi-Ratnagiri in Kolhapur district, Khaṇḍobā of Jejuri in Poona district, Rāma, Śiva and Viṣṇu. They worship many local and boundary gods, and many believe in witchcraft and soothsaying and lucky and unluckly omens. Marāṭhās and Marāṭhā-Kuṇbis who constitute a majority of the population worship all these gods and keep the usual fasts and festivals. Some aristocratic families of Marāṭhās (*kulin*) claim a Kṣatriya origin, wear a sacred thread and observe Vedic rituals.

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RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND PRACTICES.

In the religious practices of Hindus, *devapūjā* i.e., worship plays a prominent part. Images of gods may be worshipped daily at home and in temples and on special festive occasions. In the house of a devout Hindu may be found a god-room or a specially assigned niche in the wall in which is kept a *devhārā* (a handy shrine) or a *courang* (wooden stool) to accommodate small images of the family gods and goddesses and objects such as *bāṇa-liṅga* (representing Mahādeo), *Śāḷigrāma* (representing Viṣṇu) ; the *śankha* (conch) and *cakra* (discus) metallic stone (representing Durga), crystal for sun-worship, red stone (representing Gaṇeśa) and *pādukās* (foot-prints of Dutta the Preceptor). *Tāks* (small embossed images representing the dead ancestors) are often grouped with other god-images in the *devhārā* by backward communities.

Among the gods popularly worshipped in temples, the principal ones are Visnu under various names and in various *avatāras* (incarnations), Śiva in his various forms, Durgā, Gaṇeśa and Sun. The worship of these deities is called pañcāyatana pūjā which is often performed in different arrangements, the deity the worshipper wants to give prominence to being kept in the middle and the pañcāyatana called after that deity. Of the temples dedicated to the ten *avatārās* of Viṣṇu those to Rāma (with his consort Sītā, three brothers and devotee Hanumān) and Kṛṣṇa (with Rādhā) or Kṛṣṇa as a child (Bālkṛṣṇa) are pretty frequent. Viṭhobā or Viṭṭhala with Rukmiṇī, his consort, is another popular god with temples at many places. Worship of Datta (the Hindu *Trinity*) and reading of *gurucaritra* (biography of Datta the Preceptor) is sometimes followed as a cult and Datta temples are often believed to have special spirit-scaring or exercising attributes.

In the worship of Brāhmanic images a highly systematised ritual of *devapūjā* is followed which includes the sixteen *upacāras* (way of service) accompanied by appropriate *mantras* (text) adoring the deity. The sixteen *upacāras* so offered are : *āvāhana* (invocation) or *svāgata* (welcome), *āsana* (offering of the seat), *pādya* (water for washing the feet), *arghya* (water respectfully offered for washing the hands), *ācamanīya* (the water for sipping), *snāna* (bath to be effected with five materials called *pañcāmṛta* followed by pure water), *vastra* (clothing), *yajnopavita* (sacred thread), *anulepana* or *gandha* (unguent), *puṣpa* (flowers), *dīpa* (light), *naivedya* or *upahāra* (food), *namaskāra* (bow), *pradakṣiṇā* (going round from left to the right as a mark of respect) and *visarjana* or *udvāsana* (ceremonial dismissal). Worship performed by non-Brahmin communities is comparatively much simple. On ordinary occasions, waving of on an incense stick and applying *kuṅkū* to the deity constitute the worship. One who wants to be more elaborate, places some flowers, *tulsi* or *bilva* leaves, and fragments of *durvā* grass on the idol, burns camphor, breaks a cocoanut, and waves incense stick and *āratī* before it. This kind of worship is offered only on important holidays such as

Nāgapañcamī, Gaṇeśacaturthī, etc. On minor holidays a cocoanut is broken and camphor is burnt before the local deity in worship. If it is a special occasion a *naivedya* (food offering) is made at the time of worship. Only the dish prescribed for the particular holiday or occasion is offered. It is placed on a small tray and placed before the god with a prayer, a flower placed on the god is thrown on it and then it is distributed among the members present.

The religious faith of the Hindu agriculturists and labourers, i.e., the rural population in general, is a curious mixture of animism and tenets of Hindu religion. They cannot tell whether they are Smārts or Bhāgvats. Many of them are Vārakarīs. They worship all Brāhmanic gods and goddesses, but their chief objects of worship are Bhairav, Bhavānī, Bhairobā, Jakhāi, Janāi, Jokhāi, Kalkāi, Khaṇḍobā, Mārutī, Meṭisāi, Mhasobā, Mukāi, Navalāi, Phirangāi, Saṭvāi, Tukāi, Vāghobā and Vetāl. Bhairava who has two forms—Kāḷa Bhairava and Bāḷa Bhairava—is the usual village guardian, Kāḷa Bhairava is shown as a standing man with two hands, a *ḍamaru* in his right hand and a trident in his left. He is encircled by a serpant. Bāḷa Bhairava lives in an unhewn stone covered with *śendūra* (red-lead) mixed with oil. Bhavānī (Parvatī), the wife of Śiva, is known by many names such as Phirangai, Tukai, etc. She shares with Bhairava the honour of being a village guardian. Bahirobā lives in an unhewn stone outside the village. Jakhāi, Janāi, Jokhāi, Kāḷkāi, Meṭisāi, Mukāi and Navlāi are all local 'mothers' and according to the people's belief are unkindly forms of Bhavānī, capable of doing much mischief with the help of their two attendants, Naikji and Birji. Khaṇḍobā, literally sword-father, guards the country as Bhairava guards the village. He drives away the evil which causes sickness. No class honours Khaṇḍobā so highly as Rāmośis. Mārutī, also called Hanumān, is a kindly god, the great saviour of those into whom evil spirits have entered. No village in the Deccan is without a Mārutī, a rudely embossed monkey figure, sometimes within the village and sometimes without, but generaly near the gate. Mhasobā or Mhaskobā is perhaps the commonest and most widely feared of the local evil spirits. He lives in an unhewn stone coated with red-lead. Besides, to prevent his doing mischief, Mhasobā is worshipped by men who have a grudge to clear off or a wrong to avenge. They go to Mhasobā, name their enemy, and promise that if he ruins their enemy, they will give him a goat or a fowl. Saṭvāi, or Mother Sixth, is the goddess of pregnant and lying-in women. Vāghobā lives in an unhewn stone, and if he is cared for, he guards the village herds from the attacks of tigers. Vetāḷ is the leader of demons and evil spirits and also the patron of wrestlers and athletes. When a villager or one of his family is troubled by an evil spirit he tries to persuade Vetāḷ with a promise of a goat or a fowl to order the spirit to give up the troubling.

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HOLIDAYS FESTIVALS.

HINDUS HAVE SEVERAL RELIGIOUS HOLIDAYS throughout the year, but all are not commonly kept. Almost in every month there occurs a *saṇa* (holiday), an *utsava* (festival), a *jayantī* (birth) day anniversary of a god, a saint, or a hero) a *jatrā* (fair). There are days for individual observances such as a *vrat* (vow) or a *upavās* (fast). These are mentioned in a *pañcaṅga* (almanac) but in their observance a person is led by the tradition of his family, caste and the local usage. The following is a chronological enumeration of the holidays in a year observed by different Hindu sections in the district.

Gudhi-padva.

The first of Caitra is called *Guḍhī-pāḍvā*, it being the New Year Day according to Śālivāhan Śaka (era) which is observed in the district. It is ushered in by house holders by setting up in front of their houses a *guḍhī*—a bamboo pole capped with a small silver or brass pot and a new piece of cloth and a string of flowers hanging to it as a flag. To bathe early in the morning, eat a mixture of *gūḷ*, gram and neem leaves, have a sumptuous meal at noon and in the evening, visit the leading temple and particularly in villages to hear the *varṣaphaḷa* (year's forecast) read by the village priest are the activities of the people for this day.

Ram-Navami.

The birthday anniversary of god Rāma, the seventh incarnation of Viṣṇu and the hero of the *Rāmāyaṇa* is celebrated with birth festivity on the bright ninth of Caitra. That day people flock in holiday dress to Rama's temple. Exactly at 12 noon the *Haridās* announces the birth of Śri Rāma by tossing *gulāl* (red powder) and the people join him. The idol of Rāma is cradled. The ceremony closes with āratī, distribution of *sunṭhavaḍā* and *tirthaprasād* and in the evening *kīrtana* and *bhajana* are held in praise of Rama.

Hanumana-Jayanti.

On the full-moon day of Caitra exactly at sunrise an *utsava* is arranged in the temple of Hanumana to celebrate his birth.

Gauri-Puja.

In the month of Caitra, starting from the bright third and on a convenient day, Brāhmin *suvāsinis* hold in their homes the ceremony of *haḷad-kuṅkū* in honour of goddess Gauri. The idol is decked with flowers, and lights are set before it. Women neighbours and friends are invited and presented with *halad-kuṅkū*, and wet gram and fruit are laid in their laps. This is observed in most Brāhmaṇa houses, and women are seen busy during the whole month paying visits for this purpose to neighbours and relations. The bright third of Vaiśākha is the last day of the *haḷad-kuṅkū* ceremony when the goddess Gauri is said to go to her *maher* (mother's house).

Basava-Jayanti.

On the second lunar day of Vaiśākha comes *Basava-Jayantī*, a day of feast for Liṅgāyats.

Aksa Tritiya.

The third lunar day of this month which is known as *Akṣa-tṛtīyā* is considered one of the luckiest days of the year and as an auspicious beginning of field activities, cultivators do some spade work on the day.

The full-moon day is celebrated as the birth-day of god Narasiṁha, the fourth incarnation of Viṣṇu, by devotees of the deity.

The full moon day of Jyeṣṭha known as *Vaṭa-pourṇimā* is observed by married Brāhmaṇa women as a day of prayer that their husbands' lives may be prolonged. They observe a fast, worship the banyan tree and distribute *vāyans* (special offerings) to Brāhmans and *Suvāsinīs*.

Maha-ekadasis.

The 11th day, both of the bright and the dark half of every month is known as *ekādaśi*, a day of prayer and fasting. The two occurring in the bright halves of Āṣāḍha and Kārtık are considered to be very important; they mark the beginning and the end of *cāturmās* (four holy months) and are considered specially sacred and observed as fast and prayer days by a very large number of people. Followers of Vārkarī sect make it a point to be present at Panḍharpūr on those days.

A number of fasts, feasts and festivals occur in the month of Śrāvaṇa. On all the Mondays in this month, as they are sacred to god Śiva, *Śivabhaktas* fast part-time and enjoy a feast in the evening. The Fridays which go by the name of *Sampad* Śukravār (prosperous Friday) are observed by women with a worship of goddess Laxmi drawn on a small earthen pot. On every Tuesday in Śravaṇa for five years after marriage the wife worships *Maṅgaḷāgaurī* or the goddess of luck.

Naga-Pancami.

The bright fifth of Śrāvaṇa is observed as *Nagapañcamī* day by Hindus when in many a house a clay *nāga* (cobra) is worshipped and a feast enjoyed. In villages activities like digging and ploughing which are believed to hurt snakes are completely suspended and the day is spent in festival gatherings of sports and games. In the afternoon women dressed in their best, dance round in a ring, keeping time to a song which they sing in chorus.

Narali-purnima.

On the full moon of Śrāvaṇa comes *Nāralī-pūrṇimā* (Cocoanut Day). In the evening after a hearty afternoon meal men and children go to the river side and to propitiate god *Varuna* (Uranus) the presiding deity of all waters and offer cocoanuts to the water course. Because of the auspicious position of the *Śravaṇa* constellation that day, followers of Yajurveda and Atharavaveda in particular observe it as a day of *upākarma* or as popularly known of *śrāvaṇī* ceremony, when sacred fire is kindled and oblations are offered to it, *pañcagavya* is sipped and the old sacred thread is discarded for a new one. This custom

CHAPTER 3. People and Culture. *Narali Purnima.*

is however now tending to go out of vogue. The day is also known as *Povatyācī-pūrṇimā* (thread-hank full-moon). Kuṇbis and others make a number of hanks of cotton thread of five skeins each and about three feet in circumference. They dip the hank in turmeric paste and throw one round the neck of each of the men and women in the family, and round every lamp-stand, cart and other farm implements. The dish for the day is sweet milk.

Janmashtami.

On dark eighth of Śrāvaṇā comes *Janmāṣṭamī*, a festival in honour of Śrīkṛṣṇa's birthday. At places, people fast on the *aṣṭamī* day, worship an idol of Śrīkṛṣṇa at midnight and celebrate his birth with the distribution of *sunṭhavaḍā*. The next day is observed as a day of *dahikālā* or *Gokul* day. Youths and boys group themselves as cowherds and give a display of frenzied dances.

Pithori Amavasya.

The no-moon day of Śrāvaṇ known as *Piṭhorī Amāvāsya* is observed as a *vrata* by women, particularly mothers whose children do not live long.

In villages this *amāvāsyā* (at places it is the full moon of Aṣaḍha) is known as *Poḷā* or *Bendar* which is a gala festival for agricultural communities. That day they worship clay images of bullocks, and paint the horns of their cattle, especially of their bullocks, feed them on sweet dishes, and allow them to rest. In the evening they take out a procession of decorated bullocks from outside the village to its principal temple.

Ganesa-caturthi.

On the bright fourth of Bhādrapada comes *Gaṇeśacaturthī* (Gaṇapatī's Fourth) when a painted clay figure of Gaṇapatī specially bought for the day is worshipped and offerings of *modaka*, a dish of rice flour balls stuffed with cocoa-kernel scrapings and *gūl*, are made to the god. The image is kept in the house from one and half to ten, and very rarely even twenty-one, days as may be the custom with the family and then ceremonially immersed in a well, a pond or a river. A special feature of this worship is that in towns, apart from the function in the family, it is also celebrated on a community scale by public contribution and with the added attraction of religious and semi-social programmes held each day during the festival.

Gauri.

Cojoined with the Gaṇeśa festival, on the third or fourth day after *caturthī*, women hold a feast for three days in honour of Pārvati or Gauri, the mother of Gaṇeśa. A brass or clay *mukhavaṭā* (face image) of the goddess is duly installed near the idol of Gaṇapatī, worshipped and then ceremonially dismissed on the third day.

Haritalika and Rsi Panchami.

On the third and the fifth lunar days of Bhādrapada come *Haritālikā* and *Ṛṣi-pañcamī* which are observed as days of fast particularly by Brāhmaṇa women. The first is kept by married women and young girls in honour of Haratālikā (goddess Pārvati) who successfully resisted her father's wish to marry her to god Viṣṇu and married god Śiva whom she loved. The second is observed by elderly women in honour of Ṛṣis (ancient Seer). That day they do not eat anything that is grown with the labour of cattle or any other animal, but eat only hand-grown fruits and vegetables.

Pitrpaksa.

The dark half of Bhādrapada known as *Pitṛpakṣa* (the Spirit's Fortnight) is held sacred to the spirits of ancestors. On the day of this fortnight which corresponds to the death day of the father, a *sapiṇḍa śrāddha* is held. The ninth day, known as *avidhavā-navami,* is kept for rites in honour of unwidowed mothers; and the fifteenth day known as *Sarvapitrī-amāvasyā* is reserved for all ancestors whose worship may have been left out.

Navratra and Dasara.

The *Navarātrī* festival begins from the first day of Āśvina and lasts for ten days, the first nine being known as *Navarātra* (nine nights) and the last as *Dasarā* or tenth. An earthen jar filled with water with a cocoanut on the top is worshipped in honour of the goddess Aṁbābāi. On the tenth they worship weapons and field tools; children worship their books. A function of Śāradā Pūjā is arranged in schools and there is a feast in every house. In the afternoon villagers go in a procession as far as the *gāṅvśiva* (village boundary). Here the village headman worships the āpṭā or *śamī* tree with the help of the village Brāhmaṇa, and on their return they interchange the āpṭā or śamī leaves or gold as they are called that day with their relatives and friends.

Kojagiri Purnima.

The full-moon of Āśvina known as *Pāṇḍav*-full-moon is observed as a festival by agricultural communities. They spend the day from noon till evening in their fields. There they take with them one to five dishes such as cakes and sugared milk, offer them in worship to a configuration of six stones representing the five Pāṇḍavas and their mother Kuntī and then enjoy the feast. On their way home they pluck some ears of the new crop, put them on the shrine of the family god or cooking them partake of the food as *navānna* (new food). This full-moon is also known by some as *Kojāgari Pūrṇimā.* To celebrate it they take their supper in open moonlight or drink sugared milk in company.

Divali Festival.

The *Divālī* or *Dipavālī* festival signifying "a feast of lights" starts from the 13th of the dark half of Āśvina and lasts for five days. During the period each evening *paṇatī* lamps are lighted on all frontages of the house and every nook and corner inside

Divali Festival.

has also a *panati*. The thirteenth known as *Dhanatrayodaśī* is spent in general house-clean.ng and preparation of sweet dishas. Early morn.ng on the fourteenth all the house members take *abhyanga* bath. The whole day is spent in merry-making and eating sweet dishes at home and at friends' and at night fireworks are let off. On the no-moon day there is again a feast and in the evening there is the worship of goddess Laxmi. Merchants and traders hold this *Laxmī-pūjana* (worship of Laxmi, the goddess of wealth) on a considerable scale and invite friends and patrons to the *pūjā* and *pān-supārī*. The next day which is the first day of Kārtika marks the beginning of the commercial year and is called *Bal'pratipadā after the demon-king Bali*. Wives wave *āratīs* to their husbands and get presents. The last day of the festival is *Bhāūbeeja* when sisters invite their brothers, feast them, wave an *āratī*, and receive presents.

Tulasi Lagna.

On the 12th lunar day of Kārtika comes the festival of *Tulasī-lagna*. The holy basil plant usually found enshrined on a pedestal in the back-yard is married that evening to an idol of Kṛṣṇa. Parched rice (*curmuras*) and pieces of cocoa-kernal are distributed. With the marriage of Tulasī the Hindu marriage season opens and from that day agriculturists start partaking new tamar.nd, new *avalas* (phyllanthens emblica), and new sugarcane.

The bright fifteenth of Kārtika known as *Tripuri-pūrnimā* or *Deo-divālī* is held in honour of Śiva's victory over the demon Tripurāsura and is celebrated that evening with the lighting of lamps in the niches of *dīpamāḷs* (lamp-pillars) in front of temples.

Makara Sankrant.

The day the sun enters *Makara* (the zodiac sign of Capricornus) which as a solar incident occurs on the 14th of January but on an uncertain *tithi* (lunar date) in the month of Pausa is celebrated as *Makara Sankrānt*. It is marked with a feast in the afternoon, and in the evening men and women dress in new clothes, visit friends and relatives and offer them *tiḷagūḷa* or *halvā* (sesame-sweet) as greetings of the season.

The day previous to *Sankrānta* is called *Bhogī* on which a special dish called *khicaḍī* (rice and *moog* pulse boiled together, with a little salt and other condiments added) is offered to the gods and eaten. The next day of *Sankrānta* is known as *Kinnkrāta*. Among Brāhmanas, for the first five years after her wedding a newly married girl celebrates the day with *luṭaṇē* (free distribution to *suvāsinīs* of auspicious article) : this may also be on any day up to *Rathasaptami*, the seventh day of Māgha).

MAHA-SIVARATRA.

On the dark thirteenth or fourteenth of Māgha comes *Mahā-Śivarātra* (Śiva's great night) which is observed by devotees of Śiva with a fast and worship. The night is spent in singing devotional songs and the next morning after worshipping the god all partake of a feast.

SIMGA OR HOLI.

The last festival of the year is *Śimagā* or *Holī*. In villages the advent of *Śimagā* is eagerly awaited both by the young and the old. The main day of the feast is on the full-moon of Phālguna, but small boys start their holiday activities from the second day of the bright fortnight. Festivities go on till the end of the bright fortnight. In the afternoon of the full-moon day after feasting on cakes, it is sometimes customary for villagers to go into the bushlands and cut a long pole which is called the *holī*, and bring it in a procession to the village. The stump of the last years pole is dug out and the new pole is fixed in its place. A stone is worshipped at the bottom of the pole and fuel and cow-dung cakes, together with what remains of the last year's pole, are piled in a heap and set on fire. The next day, known as *dhulavada* is also observed as a holiday. There used to be a boisterous indulgence in an exchange of mud flinging and wayward pranks on that day. But that practice has now disappeared from cities and is fast disappearing also from rural areas. The dark fifth of Phalgun is observed as *Raṅga-Pañcmī*. Water, coloured with red colour is thrown at each other on that day.

GAMES AND RECREATIONS.

Minor Games.

A number of forms of recreational activity such as games, sports, and amusements are traditionally known to the people and are in popular practice in the region for a long time. They are mentioned below with a brief description of their distinctive characteristics.

In the play activities of infancy and early childhood, toys predominate over games. Babies are fascinated by multicoloured rattles (*khuḷkhuḷā*) and toys that make a variety of sounds—all kinds of pipes, whistles, drums and tamborines. These are followed by their keen rival, the doll, and then come the 'toys on wheels'. It is not an uncommon sight to see a child tripping about the house with a *pāṅgula-gāḍā*, or running about dragging behind him a toy-vehicle attached to a short string.

Children of four to five years of age play a few simple games taking part by turns. *Śivī-śivī* is the simple chase and tag game in which one of the children becomes a chaser and others run. The chase is simple with little or no dodging and the tagged player becomes the next chaser. Children love swinging and *jhoke ghenē* which is but a reversion to the days of their infancy when the cradle rocked them to sleep, holds

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a pleasurable attraction to them. *Golānṭī* (somersault) wherein the child puts his head on the ground and swinging his legs and body backward lands supine facing the sky is a brave performance enticing others to follow.

Games of the "imitative" or "make-believe" type, wherein various *roles* like that of a cartman, horse-driver, engine-driver, music-player, palanquin-bearer, etc. enacted with fidelity to real life are a particular attraction of early childhood. They are games of the sort played with no set rules but with a good team spirit, every player having a part to perform. *Ghoḍā-ghoḍā* (horse) is played in several ways. Usually two children stand, one (driver) behind the other (horse) and both run forward, the driver holding the 'horse' by its garment. Some times, a rope is passed from the back of the neck of the 'horse', and the 'driver' holds in one of his hands the two ends of the rope and carries a whip in the other. Another variety of this game consists of the 'horse' moving on all fours with a 'rider' on his back. Horse and rider is also played by only one child, the child (rider) holding a long stick (horse) between the two legs, one of the ends resting on the ground behind and the other held on the hand. *Pālakhi* (palanquin) is usually played by three. The two stand facing each other, each gripping with his right hand his left elbow and with his left hand the right elbow of his friend opposite. In the arm-square so formed they carry the third who sits with his arms resting on the shoulders of the two. *Āg-gāḍī* (train) is just a queue of children, each holding the garment of the one in front of him. The engine-driver is at the head, at the tail is the guard, and in between are the 'wagons'. The guard whistles and gives the signal, the 'wagons' get ready to move and the 'engine' speeds up.

Doll-dressing and doll-marriage are a favourite pastime among girls. *Bhatukalī* is the game of house-keeping often played enthusiastically by girls with secondary roles given to boys. Doll's marriage may form a part of *bhātukalī* or be played as a game by itself when planned on a grand scale. *Gāḍyā-gaḍyā-bhingoryā* is a game of whirls in which children go round and round themselves till the quaint sensation of giddiness sets in.

A number of "chase and tag" games are played by children between the ages of five and nine. *Sankhalici Śiva-śivi* is a more complex game than the ordinary tag. In it as the chaser tags one player after another they all join him to form a chain and run together to chase others. *Çhappā-pāṇī* is a tag game with the restriction that the chaser cannot touch a player who squats and the squatter cannot get up unless helped by some player who is on his feet. In *Āndhaḷī-Kośimbīr* (blind man's bluff) the blindfolded player tries to tag anyone that comes within his reach in the fixed playing area. *Lapaṇḍāv* is the

game of hide and seek. The seeker stands facing a wall with his eyes closed while the others hide. After all the players have found a hiding place they call out *Coo-Coo-Ch-Coo*. On this, the 'seeker' unfolds his eyes and starts searching the hidden players who rush to the spot and touch an object previously agreed on before the 'seeker' touches them. In *Una-Una-Sāvalī* the playing area consists of an open sunlit place with spots of shaded places scattered all over. The chaser stands in sun light and he can only tag the other players when they are not under some shade. In *Sāt-Ṭaḷyā*, the chaser faces a player from the group while others stand near the latter, ready to run away. The facing player gives the chaser seven claps, the last being the signal to run. The players run, followed by the chaser who tries to tag one of them.

In all "chase and tag" games the player who is tagged becomes the chaser and the game starts afresh.

Games of *goṭyā* (marbles), *bhovrā* (top), and *patanga* (kite) have a great attraction for boys between the ages of six and sixteen and are played with competitive zest. For hitting a marble usually the spring action of the drawn up middle finger is used. Each instance of correct aiming adds to the delight of the played and gives an impetus to the other to compete. For "spinning the top", the top is twirled with a long string, one end of which is held between the middle and the ring finger. The top is held between the thumb and the index finger and whipped on the ground so as to land spinning on its spike. Once a mastery over the 'spin' is acquired more skilful top-games are contested.

Days round about the festival of *Sankrānt* is the season for kite-flying. Hoisting up a kite is as good as a challenge to any-body to have a "kite-fight". Each boy so handles his kite as to cut off the thread of his opponent. For these fights a special thread (*mānjyā*) treated with powdered glass and gum is used.

A number of team-games are played strenuously and boisterously in later childhood and adolescence.

Badā-badī or ***Rapā-rapī*** : A soft ball either of rags or rubber is tossed up in air for all to catch and the player who succeeds tries to hit with the ball any other player who tries to dodge. The game can continue indefinitely.

Gup-cup-tobā : Players sit in circle facing in and one of them runs outside the circle with a *tobā* a well-knotted piece of cloth, which he quietly and swiftly puts behind one of the players. If the player is alert he immediately picks up the *tobā* and chases the player who dropped it behind him. The latter to avoid being hit by the *tobā* by the chaser must reach the vacant place quickly.

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If the seated player fails to detect the *toba* put behind him, the chaser completing the round picks up the *toba* and with it beats and chases the 'dullard' till he takes one round and resumes his seat.

Vāgha Bakarī : One of the players is made the tiger (*vāgha*), another the shepherd (*dhanagar*) and the rest are lambs (*bakarī*). They line up behind the shepherd, each holding the one in front by the waist. The shepherd handles a knotted piece of cloth for the protection of his lambs, and in spite of all the beating he gets the tiger makes repeated efforts till he captures all the lambs.

Sūrapārambī: The game is popularly played by cowherds. From a circle drawn on the ground under a tree a player throws away a stick as distant as he could. By the time the 'thief' runs for the stick and restores it in the circle all climb the tree. The game lies in the players from the tree jumping from or climbing down the tree and touching the stick before they are tagged by the thief. The one who is tagged becomes the next 'thief'. *Kuraghoḍī* : Of the two teams of equal member of boys one acts as 'horses' and the other as 'riders'. The leader horse bends before a wall for support and others bend and file behind him each holding the one in front by the waist. The riders one by one take a start, run, jump and ride a horse. The leader-rider closes with one hand the eyes of his horse and asks to tell the number of fingers of the other hand held before him. If the horse tells the correct number all the riders get down and the teams exchanging their parts the game is resumed.

The difference between the play interests of girls and boys, though sometimes exaggerated in popular opinion, cannot be overlooked. Girls generally prefer amusements like doll-dressing and are greatly interested in dancing, skipping and singing. Boys, on the other hand love to play strenuous games involving muscular dexterity and skill. Following are some noteworthy games played by girls.

Girl Games.

Sāgar-goṭe . This is a sedentary game played by girls. Big round seeds (*gajage*), pebbles. or shreds of pottery serve as ready material. Five to any convenient odd number of these are thrown up into the air and an effort is made by the player to catch as many as possible with the palms turned backward. These are again hurled up into the air and caught in both the palms facing upwards. Thus each player goes on playing till she exhausts all the pebbles. In a more complex form of the game the player throws all the pebbles on the ground, picks one of these, tosses it up in the air and before hopping it again, picks up one, two, and sometimes a large number of pebbles all at once.

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Major games.

The tag-game of *chappā-pāṇī* and *khāmb-khāmboḷyā*, a game of dodges are more popular with girls than boys. Same could be said of *śiḍī* (ladder) a game of 'hop scotch' in which the player, hopping on one foot, pushes with it a piece of flat stone over a pattern of lines marked on the ground.

Phugaḍyā is a typically indigenous game usually played by girls in pairs. Two girls stand facing each other, keep their feet together with a distance of two or three inches between the toes, cross arms, keep them straight and hold each other's hands, balance the body backward, and each time, stepping the right foot a few inches to the right and sliding the left along with it, start an anti-clockwise movement. As the footwork quickens, the movement gathers in tempo till the players get swung in a whirl. They sing jocular couplets and blow rhythmic breathing sounds with the mouth known as *pakvā* to keep time and add zest to the dance.

There are various types of *phugadis*. In *daṇḍa-phugaḍī* the players hold each other by the *daṇḍa* (upper arm); in *nakuḷyā* they interlock their fingers in a hook grip. In *basa-phugaḍī* one player keeps moving with bent knees while the other is comparatively erect. *Ekahātāci-phugaḍī* is played with only one hand engaged in the grip and the other resting on the hip. In *loḷaṇa phugaḍī* the players bend the legs and hold the great toes and then start rolling on the back and then sit. In *bhui phugaḍī* the dancers start with a full squatting position and arms resting on the knees, and then scrape the feet alternately in oblique kicks balancing the steps with backward and forward movements of the arms

Jhimmā, Kombaḍā, Piṅgā are *phugaḍīs* of different kind. There are no whirling movements done in pairs. In a way they are callisthenic movements repeated with rhythm of songs and *pakvā* and acted in pairs and groups, they lead to a competitive zest.

Major games.

A number of major games, both of Western and Indian types, are played in Kolhapur. Characteristically they require no elaborate equipment. Of the Indian major games, the well-known are: (1) *hu-tū-tū*, (2) *kho-kho*, (3) circle *kho-kho*, (4) *laṅgaḍī*, (5) *āṭyā-pāṭyā*, (6) *viṭī-dāṇḍū*, and (7) *lagoryā*. These games when popularly played are played with regional variations. Standardised forms, however have been carried out by institutions like the Akhila Mahārāshtra Śaririka Śikṣaṇa Maṇḍaḷa which are now widely adopted and strictly observed when the games are played in contested matches

Akhadas or *Talims*.

Kolhapur is famous for its *Tālims* and *Akhāḍās* which are old, indigenous institutions for the training of athletes, wrestlers and gymnasts and generally for providing facilities for exercise and physical culture. A *tālim* is usually managed by

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a committee of *pañcas* or notables of the locality and their number varies from five to fifteen. Funds are raised by subscription from residents of the locality for the initial stage of construction and equipment of the *tālim* and further for celebrations such as *urūs*, *Gaṇapati* festival or *Satyanārāyaṇ pūjā*, etc. A *tālim* is conducted by one or two senior persons known as *ustāds* or masters who are much respected by their disciples. As trainer-gymnasts they train young people who come to the *tālim* for exercise and for learning wrestling and other athletic arts. In villages, the Mārutī temple usually serves the purpose of the gymnasium, but in towns a *tālim* may have a building of its own. In its necessary paraphernalia could be included *lāthis, boṭhāṭis, farigadgās, lezims, dāṇḍpaṭṭās, malakhāmb, karelā, joḍ-joḍis, hatte,* heavy stone-balls and *nālis* (stone wheels) and sometimes dumb-bells and modern weight-lifting apparatus. Every *tālim* has a *haudā* (wrestling arena) and one or two deities, either a Mārutī and/or a Pīr. Sometimes a *talim* has an open ground attached to it.

Tālims usually aim at turning out good wrestlers. Wrestling matches are arranged between young and mature athletes of different *tālims* in the city or with athletes from outside. The winner is usually awarded an amount in money. When such matches are arranged the wrestler is put on some special training and diet. In villages the yearly 'challenge meeting' usually held on the day before Dasarā is a great event. The winner gets a handsome prize—a bracelet, a turban or a waist-cloth. Similar wrestling bouts known as *hagāmā* is a regular feature at most fairs.

Recreation-cum-Instruction.

The religious-minded Hindu, particularly if he has taken to *saguṇa* devotion (idol worship) attaches great religious merit to the uttering and hearing of and meditating upon the name of god or that of his favourite deity and attending different kinds of religious expositions known as *purāṇa, pravacana, kathā* or *kīrtana* and *bhajana* delivered by professionals in a technique of their own.

The professional readers and reciters of sacred books are known as *purāṇikas* who are engaged sometimes by a rich householder or by a temple management to read *purāṇa*. These readings take place either in the afternoon, or at night from eight to twelve o'clock. They read usually from the Rāmāyaṇa, Bhāgavata Purāṇa and the Mahābhārata in Sanskṛt and expound it in the regional language. *Pravacanas* are learned religious discourses delivered by *śāstris* well versed in the knowledge of Hindu scriptures. A *pravacanakār* need not be a professional lecturer or *purāṇika*.

A *kīrtana* is a musical discourse in which God and religion are described and expounded in poetry and prose. A *kīrtana-kāra* (performer of *kīrtana* or preacher) is also known as

Haridās (servant of Hari or Viṣṇu) or *kathekarī* (expounder of *Hari-kathā*). Of the nine stages of *bhakti* (devotion), *kirtana* is the second stage and the objective of a *kirtanakār* is to express his love of God, sing His praise and at the same time lead the hearers to a life of faith and morality.

Two schools of *kīrtana* are generally followed at present, the *Nārada* and the *Vārakarī*. In the *Nārada* type, for the *pūrvaranga* (first part) the preacher chooses as his text a Sanskṛt verse from sacred books or a song of a poet-saint, makes out a philosophical theme of it and follows it up in *uttararaṅga* (second part) expounding the principle by an illustrative story. In the *Vārakarī* type, the distinction of *pūrvaraṅga* and *uttaraṅga* is not observed. The preacher quotes themes by way of reciting *abhaṅga* rhymes and songs of famous poet-saints, one after another and immediately expounds them with illustrative examples and commentary. Off and on he pauses and starts a *bhajan* in which his accompanists and even the audience joins.

Bhajan is the chanting of religious songs in chorus Almost every village has a *bhajana* group, which consists of a leader-singer (*buvā*), a *mṛdangi* (drum-player), a harmonium player and several *tāḷakarīs* (cymbal-players). The *buvā* who is equipped with *vīṇā* (lute) and a *cipḷī* (castanets) gives out the song, the *mṛdaṅgī* and the harmonium-player provide rhythm and tune and the *ṭāḷakarīs* pick up the refrain and vociferate it in chorus clicking their *ṭāḷs* in unison.

A recreational fare similar to that of *bhajana* and *kīrtana* is served by Gondhalīs, a community of religious mendicants and hereditary worshippers of the goddess Ambābāī in whose honour they sing and dance. Marāṭhā Hindus, and even some Brāhman families, after some joyful event in the family such as birth or marriage, usually hire Gondhalis to give a *gondhal* performance at night. A high wooden stool is set in the middle of a room and a handful or two of wheat is laid on it. On the wheat is set a copper cup with betel leaves in it, and over the leaves, a half cocoa-kernel holding some rice, a betelnut, and a copper coin. Near the stool is set an image of the goddess Ambābāī and a light lamp stand, the three or four dancers playing on the *sambaḷ* (double drum), *tuntuṇē* (one-stringed fiddle) *sānj* (cymbal). One holds a *divaṭī* (lighted torch). The head dancer dresses in a long robe and garlands of cowrie shells and stands in front of others, lays sandal, flowers and *naivedya* before the lighted torch and takes the torch up. dances with the torch in his hands for a time, sings, and at intervals makes a fool of the torch-bearer. The dance lasts about an hour, and after waving an *āratī* in front of the goddess and throwing copper and silver coins in the plate holding the lamp the dance is over.

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TAMASA.

A popular recreational activity, is the *Tamāśā*. It is an indigenous species of folk entertainment which includes singing, dancing, dialogue, etc. Usually a *Tamāśā*-party which is known as *bārī* consists of about seven persons, the minimum number considered necessary being five. It includes artists of histrionic talent and of musical skill. There is one dancer, one drummer, a comedian and two others keeping time, one with a *tuntuṇē* (a string instrument) and the other with a pair of small cymbals. In a bigger party there may be an additional dancer, and a drummer and some actors. Sometimes a tambourine-player is also included. A village may be proud of its *tamāśā*-party of amateurs. Besides, there are many *tamāśā*-troupes of performers. The *nācyā* (dancer) in amateur troupes is generally a boy dressed as a girl, while a female dancer and singer is the chief attraction in professional *tamāśās*.

Tamāśās are usually performed at the annual fairs of local shrines where people congregate in great number and in gay mood as the harvesting season is just about to close. *Tamāśā* parties prefer villages to towns as they get better patronage in rural areas. Night is considered the proper time for the performance.

As the participants enter, they make obeissance to the audience. A prayer in chorus is then offered. The general prayer, called *ārati*, is followed by a song in praise of Gaṇapatī known as *gaṇa*. The item that follows the *gaṇa* songs is known as *gavaḷaṇa* in which the traditional Kṛṣṇa-milk-maid theme is enacted with characteristic repartees between the boyhood friends of Kṛṣṇa and *gavaḷaṇas* (milk-maids) headed by Rādhā. Lord Kṛṣṇa's dramatic appearance on the scene and at the end singing of some devotional *gavaḷaṇ* songs by the maids to the accompaniment of appropriate gestures and movements. After *gavaḷaṇ* comes 'the farce', a humorous presentation of a story, the chief role being enacted by the comedian. The 'farce' is followed by *saṇgit bārī*, an interesting item of 'dance and song' by the woman dancer. *Lāvaṇis*, *zagaḍās* and modern songs from the movies and other popular ones are sung and danced and members of the audience sometimes give small amounts to a particular singer for a song which has particularly pleased them. This extra collection earned by the dancer is known as *daulat jādā*. Then starts the *vag* or the dramatic presentation of a story. The story is often taken from the Purāṇas or some historical incident. *Tamāśā troupes have now taken to modern* social themes and present them in the way of stage actors. The *vag* has an indefinite duration from one to three hours. Generally the songs sung during a *vag* are sung by all, irrespective of their roles. The performance is brought to an end with the singing of a prayer.

In the census of 1951 Jains are returned as numbering 58,124 (*m*. 30,006 ; *f*. 28,118) or 4·72 per cent. of the total population of the district, 39,033 (*m* 19,895 ; *f*. 19,138) in the rural area, and 19,091 (*m*. 10,111 ; *f*. 8,980) in the urban area. They are chiefly found in Kolhāpūr City and in Hāṭkaṇangalē and Shiroḷ sub-divisions.

History and Philosophy.

Jains take the name from being followers of the twenty-four Jinās (conquerors), the last two of whom were Pārśvanatha and Mahāvıra who was also called Vardhamāna. Pārasnāth or Pārśvanātha, literally (though the conventional interpretation is different) the *nāthu* or lord who comes close or precedes the last Jina Vardhamāna was, according to traditional sources, the son of king Aśvasēna by his wife Vāmā or Bāmā Dēvī of the race of Ikśvāku. He was born at Bānārās, was married to Prabhāvatī, the daughter of king Prasenaji (according to one tradition but remained celibate according to another), adopted an ascetic life at the age of thirty, and practised austerities for eighty days when he gained perfect wisdom. Once while engaged in devotion and meditation his enemy Kamatha caused a great rain to fall on him but he stood firm and undisturbed in all the troubles caused by Kamatha. The serpent Dharaṇidhara or the Nīga king Dharana, however, shaded Pārśvanātha's head with his hoods spread like an umbrella or *chhatra*, whence the place was called *Ahichhatra* or the snake-umbrella. Pārśvanātha is said to have worn only one garment according to one tradition but practised nudity according to another. He had a number of followers of both sexes and died performing a fast at the age of 100 on the top of Sammet Shikhar in Nazaribagh in West Bengal. His death occurred 250 years before that of the last or twenty-fourth Jina Mahāvīra. Pārśvanātha often gets the epithet in early literature 'a lovable or genial personality'. His pupils like Keśikumāra lived at the time of Mahāvīra and had minor differences in dogmatic details though the basic religious ideology was fundamentally the same both for Pārśva and Mahāvīra. In fact, the parents of Mahāvira belonged to the fold of Pārśva. Mahāvīra or Vardhamāna, who was also of the Iksvaku race. was the son of Siddārtha by Triślā and was born at Kundgrāma or Kuṇdapurā, a suburb of Vaiśalī (modern Basarh) some 30 miles to the north of Patna in the district of Muzaffarpur. He is said to have married Yaśodā and to have had by her a daughter named Priyadarśanā who became the wife of Jamālī, a nephew of Mahāvīra's and one of his pupils who founded a separate sect. But another tradition reports that he remained a celibate. Mahāvīra's father and mother died when he was twenty-eight and two years later he devoted himself to austerities which he continued for twelve and half years, nearly eleven of which were spent in different series of fasts. As a Digambara or sky-clad ascetic he went robeless and had no

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vessel but his hand. At last the bonds of Karma were snapped like an old rope and he gained *Kevala* or absolute knowledge or spiritual perfection and became an Arhat that is worthy or Jina that is conqueror. He went from place to place and taught his doctrine. Of several eminent Brāhmanas who became converts and founded schools or *ganas*, the chief was Indrabhūti or Gautama who preached his doctrines at the cities of Kaushāmbī and Rajgriha. Mahāvira attaintd Nirvāna at the age of seventy-two at Pāvā in Bihar in B. C. 527 according to the well attested traditional chronology. The two royal clans, Mallaki and Licchavi, celebrated the occasion by a lamp-festival which is annually observed as Diwali even to this day.

The period in which Mahāvīra lived was undoubtedly an age of acute intellectual upheaval in the religious history of India ; and among his contemporaries there were such religious teachers as Kesa Kamahalin, Makkhali Gośala, Pakudha Kaccayana, Purana Kassapa and Tathāgata Buddha. Like Buddha, Mahāvira was not required to go from teacher to teacher ; but he accepted his hereditary creed of Pārśva which was already well established and started preaching the same. Mahāvīra was connected with the royal families of Eastern India ; his mode of living won respectful allegiance from high and low ; and his metaphysics was based on common sense, realism and intellectual toleration. It is no wonder, therefore, that Mahāvīra left behind him not only a systematic religion and philosophy but also a well-knit social order of ascetics and lay followers who earnestly followed and practised what he and his immediate disciples preached.

Like Buddhists, Jainas reject the authority of the Vedas which they pronounce apochryphal and corrupt ; they have their own scriptures called Parvas and Angas. As among Buddhists, confession is practised among Jainas. Great importance is attached to pilgrimage and the *cāturmāsa* that is four months from *Āṣāḍha* or July-August to *Kārtika* or October-November in the year are given to intermittent fasting, the reading of sacred books, and meditation. They attach no religious importance to caste. Jainas like Buddhists are of two classes, *yatis* or ascetics and *srāvakas* or hearers. The Jaina saṁgha (congregation or community) has a four-fold division ; monks, nuns, laymen and lay women. Jainas, like Buddhists, admit no creator. According to them the world is eternal and they deny that any being could have been there as its creator. The Jina became perfect but he was not perfect at first. He is not his creator, nor has he anything to do with worldly affairs. He is the God in the sense that he is spiritually perfect, and as such he is an Ideal for the worldly people who are aspiring for

spiritual perfection. Jainas worship twenty-four Tīrthaṅkaras* or lords, of whom Vṛshabha was the first, Pārśva the twenty-third and Mahāvīra the twenty-fourth. Their images have certain signs on the pedestal and have attendant deities on both sides.

On the whole Jainism is less opposed to Brāhmānism than Buddhism is and admits, here and there, some of the Brāhmanic deities, though it holds them inferior to their *coviśi* or twenty-four Tīrthaṅkaras.

The traces of Jainism in South India go back to as early as the second century before Christ if not still earlier. The ancient Jaina caves at Sittanmhasal and the migration of Bhadrabāhu along with Chandragupta, to Śravana Belgol are important landmarks in this connection. The early mediaeval royal dynasties of the South such as the Gangas, the Kadambas, the Cālukyas and the Rāshtrakūta kings extended their patronage to Jainism. Some Rāshtrakūta kings of Mānyakheta were zealous Jaina. Throughout the Deccan we come across Jaina

* Jaina Tirthakaras and their Signs :--

Name.		*Sign.*
Rishabh or Adinatha	...	Bull.
Ajitanatha	...	Elephant
Sambhava	..	Horse.
Abhinandana	..	Monkey.
Sumati	...	Curlew.
Padmaprabha	..	Red Lotus.
Suparsva	...	Lucky Crosss or *Svastika*
Chandraprabha	...	Moon (Crescent).
Pushpadanta	...	Crocodile.
Sitala	.	Cruciform Symbol or *Srivatsa.*
Sreyansa	..	Rhinoceros
Vasupujya	..	Buffalo.
Vimalanatha	...	Boar.
Ananthanatha	..	Falcon.
Dharmanatha	...	Thunderbolt
Santinatha	..	Antelope.
Kunthunatha	..	Goat.
Aranatha	...	Nandyavarta or pleasing jewel.
Mallinatha	...	Water Jar.
Muni Suvrate	...	Tortoise.
Naminatha	...	Blue Lotus.
Neminatha	..	Conch Shell.
Parsvanatha	...	Cobra.
Vardhamana or Mahavira	...	Lion.

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temples and statues of great architectural and artistic significance. Among the monolithic images of Bāhubali found at Belgol (Śravana Belgola), Kaskal (Karkal) and Venur (Venus or yenor),* the one at Belgol, erected by Cāmuṇḍarāya, the great general of Ganga Rachamalla, in the last quarter of the 10th century A.D. is a marvel of artistic execution and serenity of expression, apart from its being the earliest of the best specimen. The feudatories of the Rāshtrakūtas favoured Jainism in various places. Near about Kolhāpur, the Rattas of Saundatti (District Belgaum), and their provincial governors were great patrons of Jainism in the 11th century A.D. A Jaina saint Munichandra was not only a teacher but also a minister to Lakṣmidēva, Kartivirya's son; and he was given the title of 'Acārya, the founder of Ratta-rajya'. Under the Śilāhāras of both Karad and Kolhapur, Jainism received great patronage. Kolhapur seems to have been a Jaina settlement even before the time of the Śilāhāras. It is once called Padmālaya or the abode of Padmā or Padmāvatī, the Jaina name for Lakṣmi apparently from the temple of Mahalakshmi (the tutelary deity of Kolhapur rulers) which has since been used by Brāhmans. During the time of the Śilāhāras (1050-12-0) Jainism was the prevailing religion in Kolhāpurī and the country around. The great teacher Māghanandi seems to have been responsible for putting Jainism on a sound footing in this area. In Kolhāpur itself there are some old temples which testify to the popularity and prosperity of the creed in the town. It gradually gave way to Śankarācārya, the founder of the Smārtas (A.D. 788-820). Rāmānuja, the great Vaishṇava (A.D. 1130) and Basava, the first of the Lingāyatas (1150-1168).

Jainas name their children after their Tīrthankaras or worthies of the present, past and future ages, after the parents of the *arhats*, after the pious and great men, and sometimes after Brāhmanic gods and local deities. Like Hindus, Jain parents sometimes give their children mean names to avert early death, as Kallāppā. From *Kallu* (K) stone Kaḍāppā from *kaḍ* (K.) forest, Dhoṇḍū from *dhoṇḍā* (M.) and *Dagaḍū* from *dagaḍ* (M.) stone.

Classes.

Kolhapur Jainas are divided into Upādhyas or priests, Pancamas who are generally traders, Caturthas who are generally husbandmen, Kāsāras or copper dealers, and Śetavalas or cloth-sellers. With the spread of modern education these hereditary professions are getting changed. These classes eat together but do not inter-marry; lately, however, some inter-marriages are taking place. Formerly the sect, it is reported, included barbers, washermen and many other castes that have now ceased to be Jainas. Properly

* Castes and Tribes of Southern India, Edgar Thurston, Vol. II, P. 422.

speaking, in certain areas, there is no separate priestly caste among the Jainas; the Upādhyas or priests are usually chosen from among the learned Pancamas or Caturthas subject to the recognition of their principal *svāmis* or head priests called Pattācārya Svāmīs.

The sacred literature of Jainas is in a Prākṛt dialect called Māgadhī. They keep cattle but are not allowed to have pet birds in cages. As a community, Jainas are strict vegetarians and do not use animal food on pain of loss of caste. They filter the water that is used in drinking or cooking for fear of killing insect life. The pious Jaina takes his food before sunset in fear of destroying any animal life by eating in the dark. No pious Jaina tastes honey or drinks liquor, and monks and religious Jainas abstain from fresh vegetables. Men wear the waistcloth, jacket, coat, shouldercloth and often the Kanarese headscarf. Women wear the hair in a knot at the back of the head and dress in the full Marāṭhā lugadē with or without passing the skirt back between the feet, and a bodice with a back and short sleeves. Young widows may dress in the lugadē and bodice and their hair is not shaven. Old widows generally dress in white and do not put on bodices. Strict Jainas object to tillage because of the loss of life which it cannot help causing. Still they do not carry their objection to the length of refusing to dine with Jaina husbandmen. Among Kolhāpur Jainas the husbandmen are the largest and most important class, with a head priest or Bhaṭṭāraka of their own who lives at Nandi about eighteen miles east of Kolhāpur and has also a *maṭha* in Kolhāpur. Except some of the larger landholders who keep farm servants Jaina landholders with the help of their women do all parts of field work with their own hands. They are among hardest working husbandmen in the district, making use of every advantage of soil and situation. In large towns like Kolhāpur and Miraj Jains are merchants, traders, and shopkeepers dealing chiefly in jewelery, cotton, cloth and grain. The traders or Panchamas have their Bhaṭṭāraka at Kolhāpūr; besides at Kolhāpūr, he has a *maṭha* at Raibāg and Belgāum. Most Kāsāras deal in bangles or deal in copper or brass metal, and others weave and press oil. To every Jaina temple one or more priests or Upādhyās are attached. They belong to the Chaturth or the Pancham division and are supported by the Jaina community, taking food offerings, cloth and money presents which are made to the gods and goddesses. Besides temple priests, every village which has a considerable number of Jainas has a hereditary village priest called *grāmopādhyā* who conducts their ceremonies and is paid either in cash or in grain. These village priests, who are married and in whose families the office of priest is hereditary, are under a high priest called *dharmādhikāri* or religious head, a celibate or ascetic by whom they are appointed and who has power to turn out any priest who breaks religious rules or caste

Food.

Dress.

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customs. Lately, those two offices are merged in the hands of Upādhya who is subordinate to Bhaṭṭāraka. The village priest keeps a register of all marriages and thread-girdings in the villages; and the Bhattārakas whose headquarters are at Kolhāpur and other places and whose authority extends over all Kolhāpur Jainas, make a yearly circuit gathering contributions, or send an agent to collect subscriptions from the persons named in the village priest's list. The office of high priest is selective. The high priest chooses his successor from among his favourite disciples. Though the Bhaṭṭārakas are respected and well received whenever they go out, they seem to be losing strength as an institution, but in the post-mediæval ages, their *mathas* did good work; they looked to the religious needs of society and contributed to its social solidarity; secondly, the learned heads of the *maṭhas* were great teachers and authors in some cases, and therefore the *maṭhas* were seats of learning; thirdly, they were looked upon as religious heads and as such the contemporary kings honoured them and entrusted them with the management of temples and their estates. Under the present changed circumstances, the strength of the *maṭha* institution has very much declined. Bhaṭṭārakas have hereditary titles; Jinasēna, that of the Chaturtha section; Lakśmisena, of the Panchama section; Dēvēndrakīrti, of the Kāsārā section; and Viśalakīriti, of the Śetavala section. The last two have their Mathas outside Kolhapur.

In the early morning before he gets up, a pious Jain rests his right shoulder on the ground. He then sits facing the east and repeats verses in praise of Jinadēv, the victorious and thereafter sets out for the temple to see the image of Tīrthakara, say Pārśvanātha, avoiding as far as possible on his way the sight of man or beast. On returning home from the temple he bathes in warm water which he first purifies by reciting verses over it. When bath is finished he puts on a freshly washed cotton cloth, sits on a low wooden stool, and for about an hour says his morning prayer or Sāmāyika. He lays sandal, flowers and sweetmeat before the house gods and then goes to the temple to worship the Jina, where the head ascetic or *Svāmi* reads the Jaina Purāna, tells his beads, receives the holy water *gandhodaka* or *tīrth* in which the image has been bathed. On certain occasions he performs a fire worship and feeds the fire with cooked rice and clarified butter in the names of the popular deities or *Viśvēdēvas*. He usually lunches between eleven and one. If a stranger happens to visit the house at dinner time, he is welcomed and asked to dine. If the guest belongs to the same class as the houseowner they sit in the same row. As a rule he sups an hour at least before sunset, recites his evening prayer, visits the temple and hears a Purāṇa, especially in the four months of the rainy season, Women, as soon as they rise, go to the temple to have a sight of the Jina, say Pārśvanātha, return home and mind the house,

sweeping and cowdunging the kitchen and dining place. They then bathe, dress in a freshly washed cotton *lugaḍē* and bodice, rub their brows and cheeks with vermilion and turmeric, again visit the temple, bow before the god, and throw over the head water which has been used in bathing the god. Household work like cooking, washing, grinding, fetching water etc. is done by them. They visit the Jaina temple listen to a Purāṇa. These details depict conditions more in the rural than in the urban areas. The temple is really the religious as well as social tie for the community as a whole.

Religion.

The religion of Kolhapur Jainas may be treated under five heads; temple worship of the twenty-four Jinas and their attendant goddesses; holy places and holy days; the worship of house-gods; the worship of field guardians; and irregular worship of evil disease-causing spirits. The chief Jaina doctrine is, that to take life is sin. Like Buddhists they believe that certain conduct has raised men above the gods. Twenty-four Jainas have gained perfection. To each of these a sign and attendant god and goddess have been allotted and these form the regular objects of Jaina temple worship. Jainas belong to two main sects the *Śvetāmbaras* or white-robed and *Digambaras* or sky-clad that is naked saint worshippers. These designations indicate that the ideal saints of the former wear white garments but those of the latter go about nude. The bulk of Kolhapur Jainas are of the Digambar section. Temple worship is the chief part of a Jaina's religious duties Their temples are called *bastis* or dwellings but can easily be made out from ordinary dwellings by their high plinths. The temple consists of an outer hall and a shrine. The walls of the outer hall are filled with niches of the different popular deities and attendant goddesses. In the shrine is an image generally of the twenty-third Tirthaṅkara Pārśvanātha, which in Kolhāpūr temples is generally naked (so far as Digambara temples are concerned). The images in most cases are of black polished stone, two feet to three feet high, either standing with the hands stretched down the sides or in the seated cross-legged position. The other images generally worshipped in this part are those of Ādinātha, Neminētha and Candranātha. Temple worship is of four kinds; daily worship, eight-day or *aśtānhikī* worship, wish filling or *kalpa* worship, and five-blessing or *pancakalyaṇī* worship. In the daily temple worship the image of the saint is bathed by the temple ministrant in milk and on special days in the five nectars or *pañcāmṛta*: water, tree sap or *vṛkśa rasa* that is sugar, plantains, clarified butter, milk and curds. The priest repeats sacred verses, sandal paste is laid on the image, and it is decked with flowers.

Jainas perform the *aśtānhikī* or eight-days worship three times in a year from the bright eighth to the full-moon of *Āṣāḍha* or July-August, in *Kārtika* or October-November and in *Phālguna* or February-March. Only the rich perform the

wish-filling or *Kalpa* worship as the worshipper has to give the priest whatever he asks. The *pañcakalyānī* worship centres round the five auspicious occasions, namely conception, birth, renunciation, enlightenment and liberation, in the career of a Tirthaṅkara. In certain details it resembles the Brāhmanical sacrifice; of course, there is no place for any sort of animal destruction. According to the Jaina doctrine, bathing in holy places does not cleanse one from sin. Kolhapur Jainas make pilgrimages to Jaina holy places, Ujjyantagiri or Girnar in South Kathiawar sacred to Nemīśvara or Nemināṭha, Pāvāpura near Rājagṛha or Rajgir about fifty miles south of Patna sacred to Vardhamāna Svāmi, Sammedagiri properly Sammet Shikhar or Pārasnāth hill in Hazaribagh in West Bengal sacred to Pārśvanātha where are feet symbols or *pādukās* of the twenty-four Jaina *arhats* or worthies, and in the south, the monolithic image of Gomateśvara in Śravan Belgolā in Mysore, and Mudabidri in South Kanara. They make pilgrimages to Banāras which they say is the birthplace of Pārśvanātha. The leading religious seats of Jainas are Delhi, Dinkanchi in Madras, Penāṅgundi in the South and Kolhapur. Any poor Jaina may visit these places and is fed for any number of days, but on pain of loss of caste he must beg from no one who is not a Jaina.

Fasts.

Jaina ascetics keep ten fasts in every lunar month, the fourth, the eighth, the eleventh, the fourteenth the full-moon and no moon days. During the *cāturmāsa*, pious house-holders observe full or partial fasts on the 8th and 14th day of a fortnight. They keep most of the Brahmanic holidays and in addition the week beginning from the lunar eighth of *Āṣāḍha* or June-July, of *Kārtika* or October-November, and of *Phālguna* or February-March; they hold a special feast on *Śruta Pañcmi* May-June. Of the twenty-four minor gods and goddesses who attained on the twenty-four saints the chief are Kśetrapāla and Kalika or Jvālāmālinī and Padmāvatī who have other counterparts in Bhairava and Lakṣmī.

Goddesses and Saints.

Jainas pay special respect to Śrutadevī who is represented by a sacred book resting on a brazen chair called *śruta skandha* or learning's prop and in whose honour in all Jaina temples a festival is held on the bright fifth of *Jyeśṭha* or May-June; the Brāhmanic counterpart of this deity is Sarasvatī. To these guardian goddesses and saints two beings are added, Bhugabalī or Gommata of Śravan Belgolā in Mysore distinguished by the creepers twining round his arms and Nandīśvara a small temple like a brass frame. Besides these, they worship a brass wheel of law or *dharmacakra* which is symbolic of religion, they also worship an image representing five classes of great deities or *Parameśṭhī*, a verbal salutation to the whole of whom forms a pious Jaina's daily prayer. Jainas think that their book and temple gods the *Arhats* or worthies, the *Siddhas*

or perfect beings, the *Ācāryas* or preceptors, the *Upādhyās* or priests, and the *Sādhus* or saints are too austere and ascetic to take an interest in every-day life or to be worshipped as house guardians. Perhaps for this reason their house deities are generally of a popular nature.

House Duties.

As among Hindus, the house deities are kept in a separate room generally next to the cooking room in a *devārā* or shrine of carved wood. The images are generally of metal three to four inches high. Among them is usually the mask or bust of some deceased female member of the family who has afflicted the family with sickness and to please her had her image placed and worshipped among the house-gods. Besides the usual Brāhmanic or Liṅgāyata house deities, several families have a house image of Pārśvanātha but the worship of Pārśvanātha as a house image is not usual. As among other Hindus, the daily worship of the house-gods is simple, chiefly consisting in a hurried decking with flowers. On holidays the images are bathed in milk and flowers, sandal-paste, rice, burnt frankincense and camphor, and cooked food are laid before them. Women are not allowed to touch the house gods. During the absence of the men of the house the temple priest is asked to conduct the daily worship. Latterly, the custom of worshipping non-Jaina house deities appears to be diminishing Another class of Jaina deities are the *Kśetrapālas* or field guardians, essentially the deities of agriculturists, the chief of whom are Bhairava and Brahmā.

Superstitions.

In theory Jains do not believe in spirits. In practice, however, such belief is not found to be uncommon, particularly among villagers. They believe in spirit-possession and call their family spirits *pitrigal* or fathers. Though they profess not to believe that infants are attacked by spirits they perform the ceremonies observed by Hindus in honour of Mothers Fifth and Sixth which seem to form part of the early rites on which the customs of all Hindu sects are based. Besides the spirit attacks to which children are believed to be especially liable on the fifth and sixth days after birth, Jains believe that children are also liable to child-seizures or *bala grahas* probably a form of convulsions, which Jaina women say is the work of spirits. Educated and religious Jains who object to the early or direct form of spirit action believe in the more refined *dṛṣṭa* or evil eye as a cause of sickness. According to the popular Jaina belief all eyes have not the blasting power of the evil eye. Care must be taken in cutting the child's navel cord for if any of the blood enters its eyes their glance is sure to have a blasting or evil power. Jains do not believe that a woman in her monthly sickness is specially liable to spirit attacks. In their opinion a woman runs most risk of being possessed when she has just bathed and her colour is heightened by turmeric, when her hair is loose, and when she is gaily dressed and happens to go to a lonely well or river bank at noon or sunset. Boys

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also are apt to be possessed when they are well dressed or fine-looking or when they are unusually smart and clever. Jains profess not to hold the belief that the dead first wife comes back and plagues the second wife. Still they feel great terror for Jakhīns that is the ghosts of women who die with unfulfilled wishes and who plague the living by attacking children with lingering diseases. When a child is wasting away Jaina parents make the Jakhīn a vow that if the child recovers the Jakhīn's image shall be placed with their family gods. If the child begins to recover as soon as the vow is made the house people buy a silver or gold mask or *tāka* of Jakhin, lay sandal-paste and flowers on and sweet-meats before it, and set it in the god-room with the other house-gods. Five married women, who are asked to dine at the house are presented each with turmeric, vermilion, betel and wet gram, and a special offering or *vāyan* consisting of five wheat cakes stuffed with sugar clarified butter and molasses is made in the name of the dead woman who is believed to have turned Jakhīn and possessed the child. The image is daily worshipped with the house gods with great reverence as it generally represents the mother or some near relation of the worshipper. However this Jakhīn worship is now reported to be disappearing.

Beliefs.

Jains have no professional exorcists or charmers chiefly because their place is filled by priests. When sickness is believed to be caused by spirit-possession the priest is consulted. He worships the goddess Padmāvatī or Lakshmī and gives the sick holy water or *tīrth* in which the goddess' feet have been washed. If the holy water fails to cure, the priest consults his book of omens or *śakunāvalī*, adds together certain figures in the book and divides the total by a certain figure in the book and divides the total by a certain figure in the tables of the book and by referring to the book finds what dead relation of the sick person the quotient stands for. If it is a woman she has become a Jakhīn and should be worshipped along with the family gods, the priest then mutters a verse over a pinch of frankincense ashes or *angārā* burnt before the gods and hands it to the sick to be rubbed on his brow. If the ash-rubbing and Jakhīn worship fail to cure the sick, the priest prepares a paper or *bhūrj* or birch leaf called a *yantra* or device marked with mystic figures or letters and ties it in a silk cloth or puts it in a silk cloth or puts it in a small casket, — or *tāit*, mutters verses over it, burns frankincense, and ties it round the possessed person's arm or neck. If the amulet is of no avail the priest advises an *anuśṭhana* or god-pleasing. The head of the house asks the priest to read a sacred book before the temple image of one of the saints or to repeat a text or *mantra* or sacred hymn or *stotra* some thousand times in honour of one of the saints. The priest is paid for his trouble, and when the sick is cured the god-pleasing ends with a feast to priests and friends. If even the god-pleasing fails, the sick,

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if he is an orthodox Jaina, resigns himself to his fate or seeks the aid of a physician. Exorcists are shunned by Jain men because part of the exorcists' cure is almost always the offering of a goat or of a cock. When all remedies are of no avail Jains sometimes take the sick to a holy place called Tavnidhi fifteen miles south-west of Cikoḍī, and the sick or some relation on his behalf worships the spirit scaring Brahmanidhi until the patient is cured. Jains profess to have sacred pools, animals or trees that have a spirit-scarcing power. When an epidemic rages, a special worship of Jainadeva is performed. With a better acquaintance of the basic principles of Jainism consequent upon the spread of education and reading of sacred works by the Śrāvakas themselves, and through the preachings of saints like Śāntisāgara, these practices have become out of date and looked upon as almost irreligious excepting perhaps in out of the way villages.

Sanskars.

Of the sixteen sacraments or *sanskārs* which are nearly the same as the sixteen Brāhman sacraments, Kolhāpūr Jainas perform those of thread girding, marriage, puberty and death. Except that the texts are not Vedic the rites do not differ much from those performed by Brāhmans. Their birth ceremonies are the same as those of Brāhmans like whom on the fifth day they worship the goddess Satvāī. Boys are girt with the sacred thread between eight and sixteen. A boy must not be girt until he is eight. If, for any reason, it suits the parents to hold the thread-girding before the boy is eight, they add to his age the nine months he passed in the womb. A Jaina astrologer names a lucky day for the thread-girding, a booth is raised before the house, and an earth altar or *bahule* a foot and a half square is built in the booth and plantain trees are set at corners. Pots are brought from the potter's and piled in each corner of the altar and a yellow cotton thread is passed round their necks. Over the altar is a canopy and in front is a small entrance hung with evergreen. A day or two before the thread-girding, the invitation procession consisting of men and women of the boy's house with music and friends starts from the houses. They first go to the Jaina temple and the father or some other relation with the family priest lays a cocoanut before the god, bows before him and asks him to perform the ceremony. Jains have no *devak* or family guardian worship. The boy and his parents go through the preliminary ceremonies as at a Brāhman thread-girding. The boy's head is shaved and he is bathed and rubbed with turmeric. The astrologer marks the lucky moment by means of his water-clock or *ghaṭikā* and as it draws near music plays and guns are fired. The priest recites the auspicious verses and throws red rice over the boy. The boy is seated on his father's or if the father is dead on some other kinsman's knee on a low stool. The knot of his hair is tied and he is girt with a sacred thread or *janve* and a string of *kuśa* grass is tied round his waist. The priest

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kindles the sacred fire, betel is served to the guests and money gifts are distributed among priests and beggars. The boy has to go and beg at five Jaina houses. He stands at the door of each house and asks the mistress of the house to give him alms saying "Oh lady, be pleased to give alms". The alms usually consists of a waistcloth, rice or cash. Great merit is believed to be gained by giving alms to a newly girded boy and many women visit the boy's house for three or four days to present him with silver or clothes. After begging at five houses the boy returns home and a feast to friends and kinsfolk ends the first day. The *sodmunj* or grass-cord loosening is performed usually after a week and sometimes between a week from the thread-girding and the marriage day. The loosening is generally performed near a *pimpal* (ficus religiosa) tree. The boy is bathed, the rite of holiday calling or *puṇyāhavācan* is gone through as on the first day, music plays and flowers, sandal-paste, burn frankincense and sweetmeat are offered to the *pimpal* tree. The boy bows before the tree and the priest unties the cord from round his waist. The boy is then dressed in a full suit of clothes. declares that he means to go to Banāras and spend the rest of his life in study and worship and sets out on his journey. Before he has gone many yards, his maternal uncle meets him, promises him his daughter's hand in marriage and asks him to return home and live among them as a householder or *gṛhasth*. The boy is escorted home with music and band of friends and a small feast to friends and kinsfolk ends the ceremony. Latterly, the practice of collective *vrata bandha* ceremony is becoming popular and they are celebrated at places like Bahunali etc. and on occasions of *pañcakalyāṇī pūjā* etc.

Marriage.

Formerly, boys used to be married between fifteen and twenty-five and girls before they came of age. The law has now prescribed fourteen and eighteen as the minimum age for the marriage of a girl and a boy respectively. In towns and in educated families even this age has increased, particularly in the case of girls. The boy's father proposes the match to the girl's father and when they agree an astrologer is consulted. He compares the birth papers of the boy and the girl and approves the match if he thinks the result will be lucky and if the family stocks and branches or *Śākhās* of the boy and the girl are different. Then on a lucky day the boy's father visits the girl's house with a few friends, including five kinswomen, and are received by the girl's father and mother. The girl is seated on a low stool in front of the house gods and the boy's father presents her with a *sāḍī* and bodice and a pair of silver chains or *sānkhḷīs* and anklets or *vāḷās*. Her brow is marked with vermilion and decked with a network of flowers. The women of the boy's house dress the girl in the clothes and ornaments brought by the boy's father and the boy's father puts a little sugar in her mouth. Packets of sugar and betel are handed to the guests and the asking or *māgṇī* ends

with a feast to the guests. Formerly, marriage took place two or three years after betrothal. A lucky day for the marriage is fixed by astrologer. The ceremony lasts five days according to orthodox custom. On the first day two married girls in the bride's house bathe early in the morning, wear a ceremonial dress and with music and band of friends go to a pond or a river with copper pots on their heads, lay sandal-paste, flowers, rice, vermilion, burnt frankincense, and sweet meats on the bank in the name of the water goddess, fill the pots with water and mark them with vermilion, set a cocoanut and betel leaves in the mouth of each, cover them with bodice cloths and deck them with gold necklaces. They then set the waterpots on their heads, return home and lay them on the earthern altars. Flowers, vermilion, burnt frankincense and sweetmeats are offered to the pots and five dishes filled with earth are set before them, sprinkled with water from the waterpots, and mixed seed grain is sown in the earth. Friends and kinsfolk are asked to dine at the house and the sprout-offering or *aṅkurārpaṇa* is over. The bridegroom is bathed at his house and lights a sacred fire or *homa*, puts on a rich dress and goes on horseback with music and friends carrying clothes, ornaments, sugar, and betel packets to the bride's house. The bride's party meet him on the way and the bridegroom is taken to the bride's house and seated outside of the house on a seat of *audumbar* or *umbar* (Ficus glomerata) wood. The bride's parents come out with a vessel full of water, the father washes his future son-in-law's feet and the mother pours water over them. The bridegroom is then taken to a raised seat in the house, seated on it and presented with clothes, a gold ring and necklace. The bridegroom's parents present the ornaments and clothes they have brought for the bride, packets of betel and sugar are handed to friends and kinspeople and the first day ends with a feast to the bridegroom's party. The bridegroom returns home with his party, is rubbed with turmeric and clarified butter, and bathed by five married women, seated in a square with an earthen pot at each corner and a yellow thread passed five times round their necks. The bride is bathed in a similar square at her house. On the third day the bride and bridegroom bathe, dress in newly washed clothes and starting from their homes meet at the Jaina temple. The priest attends them and the two bow before the idol. The priest makes them repeat the five-salutation hymn which every Jaina ought to know and warns them to keep the Jaina vow or *Jain vrata* of non-killing or *ahinsā* and of leading a pure moral life. They are treated to sweetmeats each by their own people and the family gods and the cork marriage coronet or *bāśiṅg* are worshipped at both houses. On the fourth day the actual marriage ceremony begins. Friends and relations are asked to both houses. The bridegroom is rubbed with fragrant oil and again kindles the sacred fire, dresses in rich clothes and goes to the bride's house on horseback with music and friends.

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On the way he is met by the bride's party and taken to a raised *umbar* wood (Ficus glomerata) seat. While he is seated on the seat a couple from the bride's house, generally the bride's parents, come and wash his feet. The bridegroom thrice sips water, puts on the new sacred thread offered him by the bride's priest and swallows curds mixed with sugar which the couple have poured over his hands. The father-in-law leads the bridegroom by the hand to a readymade seat in the house. Before the seat a curtain is held and two heaps of rice, one on each side of the curtain, marked with the lucky cross or *svastika* and crowned with the sacred *kuśa* grass. A short time before the auspicious lucky moment the bride is led by her friends and made to stand on the rice heap behind the curtain, the bridegroom standing on the rice heap on the other side. The guests stand around and the priests recite the nine-planet lucky verses or *navagraha manglāṣṭakas*. The astrologer marks the lucky moment by clapping his hands, the musicians redouble their noise, the priests draw aside the curtain, and the bride and the bridegroom look at each other and are husband and wife. The bridegroom marks the bride's brow with vermilion and she throws a flower garland round his neck. They fold their hands together and the bride's father pours water over their hands. They then throw rice over each other's head and the priests and guests throw rice at the couple. The priests tie the marriage wristlets on their hands. The bridegroom then sits on a low stool facing east and the bride on another stool to his left. (In some places the bride sits to the right and the bridegroom to the left.) The priest kindles the sacred or *homa* fire and the bridegroom feeds the fire with offerings of parched rice held in a dish before him by the bride. Then the priest lays seven small heaps of rice, each with a small stone or a betelnut at the top, in one row. The bridegroom, holding the bride by the hand, touches the rice and the stone or betelnut on each heap with his right toe, moves five times round the heaps, the priest shows the couple the Polar star or *dhruva* and payment of a money gift to the priest completes the day's ceremonies. The hems of the couple's garments are knotted together and they walk into the house and bow before the waterpots which have been arranged on the first day and are fed with a dish of milk and clarified butter. Next day the bride's parents give a feast to the bridegroom's party and to their own kinspeople. In the morning the couple are seated in the booth and young girls on both sides join them. The bridegroom takes some wet turmeric powder and rubs it five times on the bride's face, who gathers it and rubs it on the bridegroom's face. Next morning the sacred fire is again kindled and the serpent is worshipped. The couple then dine at the bride's and are thereafter seated on horseback, the bride before the bridegroom and taken to the Jaina temple where they walk round the god, bow before him and ask his blessing. They then walk to the bridegroom's. Before they

reach, every part of the house is lighted and a long white sheet is spread on the ground from the booth door to the god-room. When the couple attempt to cross the threshold the bride-groom's sister blocks the door and does not allow them to enter. The bridegroom asks her why she blocks the door. She says, will you give your daughter in marriage to my son? He answers, Ask my wife. The sister asks the wife and she says, I will give one of my three pearls in marriage to your son. Then the sister leaves the door, the couple walk into the house, bow before the house-gods, and a feast ends the ceremony.

It must be stated that the details about marriage ceremony described above depict a picture more of the past than of the present. They are now getting considerably modified and abridged and some of them are even tending to disappear, particularly in cities.

Widow Marriage.

Though forbidden by their sacred books, all Jainas except Upādhyas (priests) and some families of prestige allow widow marriage. They say the practice came into use about 200 years ago. If a woman does not get on well with her husband, she may live separate from him but cannot marry during her husband's lifetime.

Last rites.

When a Jaina is on the point of death, a priest is called in to recite verses to cleanse the sick person's ears, to quiet his soul, and if possible to drive away his disease. When recovery is hopeless, a ceremony called *sallekhana vidhi* or voluntary submission to death is performed to sever the sick person from worldly pleasures and to make him fit for the life he is about to enter. Sometimes the sick man is made to pass through the ceremony called *sannyās grahaṇa* (ascetic vow-taking) with the same rites as among Brāhmaṇas. When these rites are over and death is near, the dying man is made to lie on a line of three to four wooden stools and the names of gods and sacred hymns are loudly repeated. After death the body is taken outside of the house, bathed in warm water (this bathing is not current everywhere), dressed in a waist and shoulder cloth and seated cross-legged on a low stool leaning against the wall. A bier is made and the dead is laid on it and the whole body including the face is covered with a white sheet. Jewels or gold pieces are put into the dead mouth and fastened over the eyes. Four kinsmen lift the bier and followed by a party of friends walk after the chief mourner who carries a firepot slung from his hand. To perform Jaina funeral rites, from the first to the thirteenth day, six men are required, the chief mourner who carries fire, four corpse-bearers and a body-dresser. Music is played at some funerals, but on the way no coins or grain are thrown to spirits and no words uttered. The party moves silently to the burning ground and the chief mourner is not allowed to look behind. About half-way the bier is laid on the ground and the cloth is removed from the dead face apparently to make sure that there are no signs of life. They go on to the burning ground and set down the bier. One of the party cleans the spot where the pyre is to be

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Funeral.

prepared and they build the pyre. When it is ready the bearers lay the body on the pile and the chief mourner lights it. When the body is half consumed or about to be set on fire the chief mourner bathes, carries an earthen pot filled with water on his shoulder and walks three times round the pile. Another man walks with him and at each turn makes a hole in the pot with a stone called *aśmā* or the life-stone. When three rounds and three holes are made, the chief mourner throws the pot over his back and beats his mouth with the open palm of his right hand. The *aśmā* or lifestone is kept ten days and each day a rice ball is offered to it. The funeral party stops at the burning ground till the skull bursts. If they choose, some of the party may go home but the six mourners must remain there till the body is consumed when each offers a flour-ball and a handful of water to the life-stone and returns home. A lamp is set on the spot where the dead breathed his last, and kept there burning for at least twenty-four hours.

Obsequies.

On the second day the six chief mourners go to the burning ground and in the house put out the fire with offerings of milk, sugar and water. On the third day they gather the deceased's bones and bury them somewhere among the neighbouring hills. Except offering a rice ball to the life-stone from the first to the tenth day nothing special is performed from the fourth to the ninth day. The family are held impure for ten days. On the tenth the house is cowdunged and all members of the family bathe and each offers a handful of water called *tilodaka* (sesame water) to the dead. The house is purified by sprinkling holy water and the sacred or *homa* fire is lit by the priest. On the twelfth the clothes of the deceased are given to the poor and rice balls in the name of the deceased and his ancestors are made and sandal-paste, flowers, vermilion, frankincense and sweetmeat are offered to them. The temple gods are worshipped and a feast to the corpse-bearers and dresser ends the twelfth day ceremony. On the thirteenth day the *śrāddha* (mind-rite) is performed and a few friends and relations are asked to dine. A fortnightly and monthly ceremony is performed every month for one year and a feast is held every year for twelve years in some of the families. According to the old rule the widow's head should be shaved on the tenth but the practice is becoming rare. She however gives up her lucky thread and toe ornaments and does not wear a black bodice or *lugade*. When a *sanyāsī* (ascetic) dies his body is carried in a canopied chair instead of an ordinary bier. The body is laid on the pyre and bathed in the five nectars or *pancāmṛta* milk, curds, clarified butter, plantain, and sugar. Camphor is lighted on the head and the pile is lit. At a *sanyāsī's* funeral only five men are required. A fire-carrier is not wanted as fire can be taken from any neighbouring house to light the pile. The family of the dead are impure for only three days and no balls are offered to the dead. When an infant dies before teething it is buried, and boys who die before thread-girding are not honoured with the rice-ball offering [illegible]

rites are performed in the case of a married woman, a widow, or a woman who dies in childbed. No evil attaches to a death which happens during an eclipse of the sun or the moon. In the case of a person who dies at an unlucky moment, Jainas perform the same rites as other Hindus.

Bhattaraka.

Jainas are bound together by a strong caste feeling and settle social disputes at caste meetings. Appeals against the decisions of the caste council lie to their Bhattāraka or *svāmī* or religious heads who with the two titles Jinasena Svāmī and Lakṡmisena Svāmī and with jurisdiction over the Jainas of almost the whole Bombay Karnatak, live at Kolhapur.

Non-Kolhapur Jains.

Non-Kolhapur Jainas include a considerable number of Jaina Marwaris and Jaina Gujarat Vanis who have come from Marwar and Gujarat for trade and have settled in the district. They do not marry with the Jainas of Kolhapur, and unlike the Jainas of Kolhapur they have no objection to take water and food from non-Jainas. Their favourite place of pilgrimage is Mount Abu. They are moneylenders and dealers in piece-goods and jewellary. They live in well built houses, send their children to schools, and are a prosperous class. Many of them have now settled in this part, especially in prosperous business centres where they have built temples for themselves.

LINGAYATS.

LINGAYATS (*Linga-Wearers*) were returned in 1931[1] as numbering 74,975 in Kolhapur district, of whom 38,646 were males and 36,329 females. They are chiefly found in the Hatkaṇaṅgale, Gadhinglaj and Shirol sub-divisions. More than one-third of their population is found in Gadhinglaj on the south-east bordering on Belgaum.

The Liṅgāyata sect which rose in importance during the twelfth century is closely associated with the name of Basava[2]

[1] In 1921 they numbered 60,911 (*m.* 31,901 ; *f.* 29,010).

[2] Followers of Basava consider him an incarnation of Nandi (Siva's bull). According to the traditional account, Basava was born in a Brahmana family at Ingleshwar Bagevadi in the Bijapur district (about A. D. 1125) as the son of Madiraja and Madalambike. He refused to undergo the *upanayana* ceremony and embraced the Virsaiva faith. He spent his early days at Kappadi, at the junction of the Malaprabha and Krishna where a shrine stands, dedicated to Sangamesvara. Here Basava is said to have received a divine call to work for the revival of Virasaivism. He found a great opportunity to fulfil his mission when he was appointed prime minister of Bijjala the Kalachuri King (A. D. 1156-1168) in succession to his own maternal uncle who had filled that post till his death.

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who, though not the founder of the faith, was mainly responsible for making it popular in the Kannada country. Liṅgāyatas claim the *liṇga* as the earliest object of worship and look on Basava as the restorer, not the author, of the faith. It is not unlikely that like other guardian emblems or objects the *linga* has from very early times been worn by the people of the Deccan.[1] In Kolhapur, Guravs, not Brāhmans, who are the ministrants in Śaiv shrines, often wear the *linga*, though most of them are not followers of the Liṅgāyata faith. According to the theory of the faith the worshippers of the *liṅga* are equal and distinctions of caste cease. It is said that Basava allowed people of even the lowest classes to join the new sect. Many of the early adherents were men of low caste, the bulk of Liṅgāyata saints being outcastes and women, without a Brāhmana among them. But soon after Basava's death, the lower or impure classes were not allowed to join and all other classes who wished to join had to pass a term of proving before they were admitted to be members. Like the doctrine of the equality of believers, many of Basava's other doctrines, if they ever passed beyond theory, are no longer practised. One of his leading doctrines was that there was one God who required neither mediators, fasts, nor pilgrimages.

Basava Faith.

Kolhapur Liṅgāyats worship several gods, among them Basava the founder of the faith whom they consider an incarnation of Nandi (Śiva's bull), Gaṇapati and Vīrabhadra the sons of Śiva, and Gaṅgā and Pārvatī the wives of Śiva. They also worship Yallammā of Hampi in Bellari and Tulajābhavāni of Tulajāpur in Marāṭhwāḍā. They fast on *Śivarātra* (Siva's Night) in Magh (January-February) and make pilgrimages to Ulvi in North Kannara and Sangameshvar in Bijapur. In practice the Jagama who acts as priest for the community is no less a middle man than the Brahman from other Hindus.

The word Liṅgāyat is the anglicised form of Liṅgavant, which is the vernacular term commonly used for any member of the community. The Liṅgāyats have been aptly described as a peaceable race of Hindu Puritans. Their religion is a simple one. They acknowledge only one God, Śiva, and reject the other two persons of the Hindu Triad. They reverence the Vedas, but disregard the later commentaries on which the Brahmans rely. Their faith purports to be the primitive Hindu

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[1] The Brahman story of the origin of the wearing of the *linga* is that Brahma asked Rudra or Siva to plan a world. Rudra disappeared into the lower world and remained so long thinking how to devise an everlasting world that Brahma weary of waiting himself completed the universe. News came to Rudra that a world had been made In a fit of passion he forced his way through the earth and determined to destroy all that Brahma had done. The gods prayed to him to spare it and he relented. He took from the gods their power and made an animal with three horns one of Visnu's power, one of his own, and the third of Brahman's Rudra afterwards restored their power to Brahma and Vishnu and wore the third horn round his own neck calling it *atmalinga* (soul-essence).

faith cleared of all priestly mysticism. They deny the supremacy of Brāhmans, and pretend to be free from caste distinctions, though at the present day case is in fact observed amongst them. They declare that there is no need for sacrifices, penances, pilgrimages or fasts. The cardinal principle of the faith is an unquestioning belief in the efficiency of the *liñgam*, the image which has always been regarded as symbolical of the God Śiva. *This image, which is called the jaṅgama liñgam or* moveable *liñgam*, to distinguish it from the *sthāvara* or fixed *liñgam* of Hindu temples, is always carried on some part of the body, usually the neck or the left arm, and is placed in the left hand of the deceased when the body is committed to the grave. Men and women, old and young, rich and poor, all alike wear this symbol of their faith, and its loss is regarded as spiritual death, though in practice the loser can, after a few ceremonies, be invested with a new one. They are strict disciplinarians in the matter of food and drink, and no true Liṅgāyat is permitted to touch meat in any form, or to partake of any kind of liquor. This Puritan simplicity raises them in the social scale, and has resulted in producing a steady law-abiding race, who are conservative of the customs of their forefathers, and have hitherto opposed a fairly unbroken front to the advancing tide of foreign ideas. To this tendency is due the very slow spread of modern education amongst them, while, on the other hand, their isolation from outside influence has without doubt assisted largely in preserving intact their beautiful, highly polished, and powerful language, Canarese i.e. Kannada.*

One of the leading doctrines of Basav's faith was that nothing could make the bearer of the *liñga* impure. To the true believer the observance of ceremonial impurity in consequence of a woman's monthly sickness, a birth or a death was unnecessary. In actual practice, many Kolhapur Liñgāyatas are found to observe the practice. Another of Basav's leading doctrines was that as she wore the *liñga* the Liṅgāyata woman was the equal of the Liñgāyata man; that therefore she should not marry till she came of age; that she should have a say in the choice of her husband; and that she. equally with the man, might be a *guru* (Liñgāyata teacher). In practice: however the position of a Liṅgāyata woman hardly differs from the position of a woman in a non-Liñgāyat Hindu household. According to the theory of the Liñgāyata faith the wearer of the *liñga* safe from all evil influences, neither stars nor evil spirits can harm him. In practice many Liṅgāyatas consult astrologers and fear and guard against evil spirits. The chief point of other difference between Kolhapur Liṅgāyatas and Hindus is that a Liṅgāyata worships fewer gods, has fewer fasts and feasts and fewer ceremonies, especially death ceremonies and purifying ceremonies; that both men and women wear the *liñga* and neither man nor woman the sacred thread; that both men and

* *Castes and Tribes of Southern India*. Edgar Thruston, Vol. IV, p. 280.

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women rub their brows with cowdung ashes; that they neither eat animal food nor drink liquor; and that they show high respect to Jangamas, their own priests. In having a *liṅgā* binding, an initiation for priests, and a purifying ceremony for all instead of the sixteen *saṁskāras* (sacraments), Liṅgāyatas differ both from Hindus. In their respect for life, in the strictness of their rules against the use of animal food and liquor and in the little regard they show to the dead, Liṅgāyatas are like Jains.

Classes.

Kolhapur Liṅgāyatas belong to four classes:—(1) Jangams as (priests), (2) Vanis (traders), (3) Pancams or Pancamsalis (craftsmen, husbandmen and herdsmen), and (4) an unnamed class including servants, barbers, washermen, and Mahārs.

Jangamas.

Liṅgayata priests of Kolhapur include five sects or schools Ekoramārādhya, Marularādhya, Panditarādhya, Revanarādhya, and Viśvarādhya. The founders of these schools Ekorama, Marula, Pandita, Revana and Viśva are believed to have sprung from the five mouths of Śiva and to have been great spreaders of the Lingayata faith. The heads of these sects seldom meet and there is no show of rivalry. To laymen all Jangamas are holy and they worship all without much inquiry as to their schools. Each of the five schools includes thirteen *bagis* (divisions).[1] "It is a peculiarity amongst the Liṅgāyats that they esteem the Jangam or priest as superior even to the deity."[2]

[1] The *bagis* (divisions) of the Ekoramaradhya school are Bhasma, Chandragundi Katiyemba, Khadgi, Khastak, Lambonemba, Mrityakanti, Rajyu, Ramgiri, Raupya, Shikhari, Triputi, and Vasam. The divisions of the Marularadhya School are Bilvasutra Bhaitraya, Chakari, Kattar, Kavach, Koraban, Kukshakanta, Kutar, Malli, Masani, Nilkanti, Singi, and S arnakanthi. The divisions of the Panditaradhya School are Bedadi, Bhagini, Danti, Gonikati, Jalkanti, Jathar, Keshkanti, Lallat, Lochan, Muktaguchha, Natija, Trigun, and Vijaprakanti. The divisions of the Revanaradhya school are Bhikti, Digambar, Mahni, Murath, Musadi, Nat, Panchakanti, Padvidi, Puran, Shadga, Shori, Surgi, and Voni. The divisions of the Vishvaradhya school are Dashmukh, Gagan, Gochar, Gurjarkanti, Kambli, Panchvaktu, Panchvani, Lagudi, Musali, Pashupati, Shitali, and Vrishabh. The chief details of the five leading schools are:—

LINGAYATA SECTS (1881).

School.	Origin.	Centre.	Stock.	Sutra or Branch.	Pravar or Founder.
Ekoramaradhya	Drakaharam Kshetra.	Kedar ..	Bhringi ..	Lambak .	Virshaiv.
Narularadhya ..	Shri Sidhavata.	Ujjain ..	Nandi ..	Vrishtika.	Vireshvar.
Panditaradhya .	Shuddhkundi.	Shrishail Parvat.	Vrishabh.	Muktaguchha.	Virshaiv.
Revanaradhya ..	Kolupakish.	Kadalipur Balehalli.	Vir ..	Padvidi ..	Virshaiv.
Vishvaradhya ..	Vishvesha Ling.	Kolipake.	Skand ..	Panchvarna.	Virshaiv.

[2] *Castes and Tribes of Southern India*, Edgar Thruston, Vol. IV, p. 280.

Jangamas of the some school division (*bagi*) do not intermarry. Jangamas include five classes, *Viraktas* (renouncers of worthy pleasures), *pattadevrus* (head priests), *ayyās* (teachers), *carantis* (wanderers) and *māris* (acolytes). *Viraktas* were the loin cloth and short loose shirt and spend most of their time in devotion and study. *Paṭṭadevrus* were a waistcloth instead of a loin cloth and are less retired than *viraktas*. *Ayyas* are married and live chiefly by begging. *Carantis* (wanderers) go from place to place and gather contributions from the Lingāyata laity for the support of *mathas* (monasteries). *Maris* (acolytes) are celibates and wait on *viraktas*. After the death of a *virkta*, the most learned and fittest among his *Māhis* is raised to his seat. Unlike Bijapur Liṅgāyatas, Kolhapur Liṅgāyats have no Ganacharis (monastery managers), Mathapatis (Liṅgāyata beadles) and *Cālvaḍis* (Mhār standard-bearers). In Kolhapur the heads of small monasteries are called Maṭha-*dayyas*. Vāṇis and Panchams or Panchamśalis can become Jaṅgamas but it is only when a Jaṅgama has no child or relation that he adopts a boy from these classes. The boy must be unmarried and must not be the child of a widow by her second husband. *Ayyas* (married Jangamas) may take food from any Liṅgāyata except from members of the barber, washerman and mahar classes, and in some cases from oilmen and ferrymen. When a jangama gives a feast, all except these three classes come and eat together. The same freedom is observed when a feast is given in a *matha* (monastery). In Kolhapur the word Jaṅgama is generally applied to the Jaṅgama's assistants, and the head local Jaṅgama is called svāmi (lord), a title which in other districts belongs to the provincial high priest. The house in which the *maṭhadayyā* (local head priest) lives is called a *matha* (monastery). In places where there are many Liṅgāyatas the monastery is a large building of stone or burnt brick, an open quadrangle generally shaded with trees among which the *bel* (Aegle marmelos) is conspicuous. The four verandas of the quadrangle are covered with tiled roofs one of which is set apart as a *linga* shrine with a Nandi (bull) in front. In the central hall a place is set apart for the *svāmi* (chief priest), whose authority extends over several villages. In the outer verandas a school is generally held where Kannada and sometimes Sanskrit are taught. In the open ground behind the monastery are generally a well, and at some distance the tombs of previous *svāmis*, cube-shaped stone structures with a *liṅga* on the top. The hindpart of the enclosure is generally surrounded with a wall. At each corner of the building is a stone called the *liṅgmudrikallu* (*liṅga*-marked stone) Liṅgāyata strangers can almost always find a meal at a monastery. No non-Lingayat can get a meal at a monastery and no Lingayata stranger can remain at a monastery more than two days. The

CHAPTER 3. People and Culture. LINGAYATS. Maths.

income of the head of the monastery is generally partly paid by government, most of it is collected from the local Lingayatas chiefly on marriage and other festive occasions, from trade fees, and from gifts at religious ceremonies. The head of the monastery often gets presents of cloth from cloth dealers and grain from husbandmen and landowners. A stranger who visits the head of a monastery is generally requested to lay some silver coins before his feet. If the *svāmi* expresses a wish for anything his wish is promptly gratified by one of his followers. He generally takes his mid-day meal at a follower's house and sometimes takes a little at several houses; his evening meal he takes in the monastery. He has servants and attendants who exact prompt obedience from the *svāmi's* followers. The *svāmi* is always careful on all occasions to press on his followers the need of keeping their faith and of unquestioning obedience to all its rules. In the afternoon he generally reads some sacred book, old people almost always coming to hear. In *Śrāvana* the congregation is specially large and is generally chiefly compposed of old women. The *Purāna* is finished in *Bhādrapad,* when the hearers give cash and clothes, and a feast is held.

Vanis.

The class of Liṅgāyatas who rank next to Jaṅgamas are the Vanis (traders). They are divided into Śilavantas (rule-keepers) and Lokavantas (common people)[1]. Śīlavanta rank next to Jaṅgamas and can become Jaṅgamas by passing the purifying ceremony called *dīkśa*. Lokavantas who rank next to śīlavantas can also become Jangamas. Except when a Jangama is the host or when the feast is held in a religious house, neither Śīlavantas nor Lokavantas eat with members of the lower classes.

The third division includes Pancamas or Pancamasālis, Teli (oilmen), Ambis (ferrymen), Gavaḷis (cowherds), Maḷis (gardeners), and Kumbhārs (potters). A Jaṅgama may adopt a Pancam boy. The fourth or lowest class includes Nhāvis (barbers), Parits (washermen), and Mahārs.

The names in common use among men are generally taken from the names of Śiva such as Rudrappā and Śivaliṅgāppā, some from Basava and Guru such as Basappā, Vīr Basappā and Gurusidhappā. If a woman has lost several children she gives her next child a mean name, as Kallappa from *kullu* (K.) stone and Kadappa from *kad* (k.) forest. The names in common use

[1] Silavanta is said to come from the Sanskrit *sila* (good disposition) and to mean these who obey religious rules. The word Lokavanta is from the Sanskrit *loka* (people) and means of the masses.

among women are Basavvā from Basav, Gangavvā from the heavenly Ganga, Kallavva from *kallu* (K.) stone, and Pārvatīvva from Pārvatī the wife of Śiva. Their surnames, when they have surnames, are place and calling names as Lokapuri, a dweller in Lokapur or Tenginkai, a cocoanut seller. The lay followers of a *guru* (teacher) adopt his *gotra* (family stock).

Houses.

Liṅgāyatas of Gadhinglaj in the south speak correct Kannada. The home tongue of the rest is a somewhat impure Kannada spoken in a Marāṭhī tone. Out of door most speak a fairly correct Marāṭhī. In general appearance, Kolhapur Liṅgāyatas as a class differ little from Marāṭhās. The men are dark-brown and women are often fair and handsome. Their houses are simple and clean and are occasionally two-storeyed. They are divided into several dark and ill-aired rooms, a cooking and a store-room, a sitting and office room, and bed rooms. Near the cook-room are niches in the wall with folding doors where pickles and sun-dried *sāṇḍge-pāpaḍ* are kekpt. A portion of the centre hall is set apart as a shrine where the Jaṅgama is worshipped. No one but a Liṅgayata may go into the cook-room or into the Jaṅgama shrine. Liṅgāyatas have a great dislike to leather. They allow no leather in their saddles; no shoe may be brought into the inner part of the house, and if any one touches a shoe he must wash. The privy, if there is a privy, is at some distance from the house. Cattle are not kept in the house but in a separate shed.

Food.

Liṅgāyatas never use animal food or spirituous drink. Their daily food includes rice, millet bread, pluse curry, vegetables, and milk, whey, curds, butter and clarified butter. No one but a *liṅga*-wearer may touch or even see a Liṅgāyata's food. On holidays and at small parties they have rich dishes. Their caste feasts are plain. The two chief dishes are *huggi* that is wheat and milk boiled together and seasoned with raw sugar and *holagis* (rolly-polies), that is wheat cakes stuffed with gram flour and raw sugar. A Liṅgāyata when alone or one of a small party sits to eat on a low wooden stool and generally eats his food off a brass plate set on an iron or brass tripod. Except in travelling when metal plates are not easily got and leaf plates are used, Liṅgāyatas do not use leaf plates. At dinner, before he eats, a Liṅgāyata holds his *linga* emblem in his left hand and bows to it. At caste dinners the guests sit on matting instead of on stools, and except Jaṅgamas, lay the plate on the ground and not on a tripod. At caste dinners before guests have sat to it, *tīrtha* (holy water), that is water in which a Jaṅgam's feet have been washed, is poured over the guest's hands. The guests sip the holy water, shout *Har Har Mahadev* and begin to eat. In eating, the right hand is alone used. The small waterpot which must never touch the lip is raised in the left hand. Women dine after men. They sit on stools, and generally lay their plates on the ground. In orthodox families

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for a young married couple to talk together in the presence of olders is considered immodest. The religious minded elderly men grow short topknots or shave the whole head and face except the moustache and eyebrows. They mark the brow with white ashes called *vibhūti* literally the great power.[1] The ashes which are rubbed on the brow are specially prepared by the Jaṅgamas (priests). Pure cowdung is dried and burnt and the ashes soaked in milk for six or seven days and rolled into balls about the size of a mango. Before they are used, the Jaṅgama purifies the ball by sprinkling it with sacred water and saying texts over it. They cannot be sold by the person who gets them from the Jaṅgama, and they cannot be passed to any one else.

Dress.

Virakta (unwed Jaṅgamas) wear a loincloth hung from a waistband and ochre-coloured shoulder and head cloths. Laymen and married priests generally wear a somewhat scrimp waistcloth, and a headscarf. They do not colour their cloths with ochre. Husbandmen generally wear a loincloth or short trousers, a blanket, a headscarf. Liṅgāyata women tie the hair in a knot at the back of the head. They rarely deck their hair with flowers or ornaments. They wear the ordinary *coli* (bodice) with a back and short sleeves and the ends tied in front on the bosom, and ordinary *sari*, the skirt of which falls like a petticoat and is seldom drawn back between the feet. Liṅgāyata women are also careful to draw the upper end of the robe over the head. Like the men, women mark the brow with white cowdung ashes. Except that the women wear no head ornaments, the ornaments worn both by men and women are more or less the same as those worn by other Hindu communities.

Daily Rites.

An orthodox Liṅgāyata rises early, marks his brow with ashes and goes to the monastery to pay his respects to the *svāmī*. He works till eleven, bathes, and, sitting on a white blanket in the central hall near the Jaṅgama shrine, worships the *liṅga* for about half an hour and then dines. In the evening he visits the monastery and bows to the head priest.[2]

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[1] Among Kolhapur Lingayatas, according to the time when they are used, the cowdung ashes have different degrees of holiness. The ashes which Lingayatas rub without bathing are simple ashes, have no texts said over them, and can be touched by any Lingayata. The ashes rubbed after bathing are holier, have texts said over them, and can be touched only by Lingayatas, who have bathed. The ashes rubbed at the time of *linga* worship are still holier, have many texts said over them, and can be touched only at the time of *linga* worship.

[2] When a Lingayat layman pays his respects to his head priest, he prostrates himself before him; and when he meets an ordinary jangama he places both his palms on his head and the head on the Jangama's feet. Neither the head priest nor an ordinary Jangama does or says anything. When a Lingayat layman meets another Lingayata laymen both of them join their hands, raise them to their heads and say *Saranarth* probably from *saranarthi* that is asking refuge. When two jangama meet they salute each other like laymen. Laywomen do not salute each other; but if one meets a jangama woman a laywoman salutes a Jangama. Like laywomen, jangama women do not salute one another. Before he starts on a journey, a Lingayata prostrates himself before his gods and olders and his younger relations prostrate themselves before him.

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Priests and a few pious laymen worship the *linga* in the evening with the same detail as in the morning. But the bulk of the laity simply wash their hands and feet and then wash the *linga* and eat their supper.

Religion and Philosophy.

The religious creed which Lingāyatas follow is known as Vīrsaivism—the Saivism of the Stalwarts or heroic Saivism—and hence they are called Vīraśaives as distinguished from other three classes of Śaivas *viz.* Sāmānya, Miśra and Śuddhaśaivas. The first two of these classes worship Śiva and Viśnu, while Śūddha and Vīra Śaivas worship Śiva alone. Because of the *linga* they wear on their person, which the Śuddhaśaivas do not, Vīraśaivas get the name of "Lingāyats" and the cult itself is called Lingāyata.

The Vīraśaiva philosophy is called *Śakti-viśiṣṭādvaita* a term which means the non-duality of God (*viz.* Paraj-Siva) as qualified by *Sakti* (power). According to this system, God and Soul are in an inseparable union through the inalienable power called *Śakti*; the individual soul is neither absolutely identical with nor entirely different from God. *Śakti* is the power which eternally resides in Parā-Siva as His inseparable attribute. The individual soul or *Jīva* is *anisa* (part) of Siva; and it imagines itself to be different from him on account of *avidyā* (ignorance). The final goal of the soul as conceived in the Virasaiva system is its *aikya* (unity) with Para-Siva, the Supreme reality. It is an experience of unexcellable bliss technically called *lingānga-sāmārasya*, of i.e., identity in essence between *linga* (Śiva) and *anga* (soul).

Aṣṭavarna.

Guru, *Jangama* and *linga* are the three terms which occur most often in Vīraśaiva writings. The *guru* is the preceptor who imparts to the aspirant spiritual knowledge. The jangama is the realised soul or the human abode of this deity and the linga is the store home deity, Śiva. As aids to progress in faith, Viraśaivism (Lingāyatism) attaches great importance to the observance of eight rules called *aṣṭavarna*: (1) obedience to the *guru*, the spiritual guide who initiates the novice into the Viraśaiva fold with due forms; (2) worship of the *linga*, an emblem of the supreme God; (3) reverence for the *Jangama* as for an incarnation of Śiva; (4) smearing of *vibhūtī* (holy ashes) prepared of cowdung; (5) wearing of a rosary of *rudrākśa* beads: (6) *pādodaka* sipping the water in which ahe feet of a *guru* or *Jangama* have been bathed; (7) *prasāda*, offering food to a *guru*, *linga* or a *Jangama*, partaking sacramentally of what is left; (8) *mantra*, the sacred formula of five syllables (pancakśara) "*namah Śivāya*" meaning "obelsance to Śiva". These eight modes of piety are taught to every Lingayata child at the diksa ceremony.

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All Liṅgāyatas, both men and women, from childhood to death wear, hung to a string passed round the neck a small slate-stone *liṅga*, a double disc with a small pea-like knob on the upper disc, hid under a betelnut-like coating of cowdung earth and marking nut, and wound in a cloth or laid in a silver or rarely in a gold box? A Liṅgāyata is very careful not to lose his *liṅga*. In theory a man who loses his *liṅga* is degraded and cannot again become a Liṅgāyata. In practice if the *linga* is accidentally lost the loser has to give a caste dinner, go through the ceremony of *śuddhi** (cleansing), and receive a new *liṅga* from the *guru*. Jaṅgamas (Liṅgāyata priests) marry and bury Liṅgāyatas and conduct almost all Liṅgayata rites and ceremonies. The Jaṅgama is succeeded by his son or near kinsman, or if he has no near kinsman by a disciple. The head pontiff of the Liṅgāyatas is the Ayyā of the Chitrakaldurga monastery in north-west Mysore. He is greatly respected and when he visits Kolhapur is received with enthusiasm. The *guru* is a married Jangama and seems to be the direct descendant either by birth or by adoption of the first head of several families. The *gotra* (stock) of these families and of their *guru* is the same and the families cannot intermarry. The *guru* is required to be present at every family ceremony. If he is not present his place is taken by an ordinary *ayyā* who conducts the ceremony. Besides everybody's own *liṅga* which is worshipped by the wearer at least once a day, in Kolhapur almost every Liṅgāyata household has a wooden shrine for the house gods, who are worshipped every morning by a man of the house. The shrine is placed in *mājaghar* (central hall) close to the Jaṅgama shrine. The house gods are small brass images generally representing Śiva's family, Śiva himself, his two wives Gaṅgā and Pārvatī, his two sons Ganapatī and Vīrbhadra, and his bull the Nandī. The worshipper bathes, wears a silk, woollen † or

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* The *lingas* worn by Lingayatas are generally of a light gray slate brought from Parvatgiri in North Arkot. The *linga* which is turned on a lathe is of two discs one lower circular about an eighth of an inch thick the upper slightly elongated each disc about three quarters of an inch in diameter and separated by a deep groove about an eighth of an inch broad. From the centre of the upper disc which like the lower disc is slightly rounded rises a pea like knob about a quarter of an inch high and three-quarters of an inch round giving the stone *linga* a total height of nearly three quarters of an inch. This knob is called the *ban* or arrow The upper disc is called *jalhari* that is the water drawer because this part of a fullsized *linga* is grooved for carrying off the water which is poured over the central knob It is also called *pith* that is the seat and *pithak* the little seat. Over the stone *linga*, to keep it from harm, is plastered a black mixture of clay cow dung ashes and marking-nut juice This coating, which is called *kanthi* or the cover entirely hides the shape of the enclosed stone *linga*. It forms a smooth black slightly truncated cone not unlike a dark betelnut about three-quarters of an inch high and narrowing from three quarters of an inch at the base to half an inch across the point which is cut flat and is slightly hollow. The simplest *linga* costs (4a) and its usual price is (Rs. 6). To the clay, ashes, and marking-nut juice the rich add powdered gold, silver, coral, pearls even diamonds, raising the value of the *linga* sometimes to (Rs. 200).

† Unlike Jains and like Brahmans Lingayats hold that silk and woollen cloths are not made impure by touch.

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freshly-washed cotton waistcloth, marks his brow with cowdung ashes, and begins the worship. He bathes the images in a brass or copper saucer, wipes them with a piece of cloth, and sets them on their proper seats in the shrine. He marks the images with cowdung ashes, lays flowers on them, throws coloured rice on their heads, burns frankincense before them, waves a small lamp fed with clarified butter about them, and offers them sugar, milk, or molasses. He recites different texts during the different parts of the worship. The *liṅga* worship is performed close to the shrine of the house gods. The worshipper bathes, puts on a sacred cloth, marks his brow with cowdung ashes, and produces a cane basket. From the cane basket he takes a white blanket which is wrapped round a number of small worship pots, a number of large and small *rudrākś* bead strings, and a bag of cowdung ashes. He sits on the white blanket, marks his brow and generally smears his whole body with ashes, and in the small pots which are shaped to hold the different articles of worship puts flowers, red rich, and other articles. He puts the *rudrākś* bead strings round his neck, wrists, ears, and arms, and small string round the *liṅga*. He worships the *liṅga* in the same way as he worships his house gods. After worship he folds the pots, the bead strings, and the ash-bag in the white blanket, puts them in the cane basket, and places the cane basket in the niche. Except that she says no texts a woman in worshipping her *liṅga* goes through all the details given above. Most Kolhapur Liṅgāyatas, if they happen to pass by Rāma's, Vithoba's, Māruti's or a boundary god's, or Lakśmī's or a village goddess' temple, bow to the deity. They fast on *Śivarātra* in *Māgh*. On *Śrāvaṇ* Mondays they take only one evening meal. Most of them go on pilgrimage to Kedārling on Jotibā's hill in Vaḋi-Ratnagiri about nine miles north-west of Kolhapur, to Nidsushi near Sankeshwara in Belgaum, to the math or monastery of Siddngiri in Kadappā about six miles south of Kolhapur, and to Yedur in Chikodī in Belgaum. A few go to Gokarn in North Kanara and Ulvī twenty-five miles south of Supa in North Kanara

In theory the Liṅgāyata has no good or bad days. In practice Kolhapur Liṅgāyatas have a belief in good and bad luck and often consult jaṅgama astrologers to find a lucky day to perform a ceremony. They fast on eclipses and bathe before and after the eclipse. Jaṅgamas and a few picus laymen may not believe in ghosts and witchcraft but women and ordinary people have a faith in witchcraft. Some Liṅgāyatas profess to cure diseased part and by tying on the person of the sick a *Yantra* (magical design) drawn on paper with the name of the god Dattātreya and some other letters on it.

Birth.

Any suitable room in the house is used as a lying-in-room. When a woman is in labour a midwife is sent for. If the labour is long and trying, jangamas are called to say texts. After birth the room in purified by sprinkling water in which

Birth.

a Jaṅgama's foot has been washed. The birth-time is noted and a Jaṅgama astrologer is asked to prepare horoscope and is paid according to the means of the family. If a birth takes place at an unlucky time, the evil stars are honoured with offerings. On the fifth day after the birth of a child a Jaṅgama comes, recites verses, takes a *liṅga*, winds it in a piece of silk cloth, and ties it round the child's neck or its upper right arm. The *liṅga* is soon after taken off and tied to the child's cradle. In the evening women neighbours come and perform rites in honour of Mother Sixth of Saṭī to keep off evil spirits. Saṭī is represented by a sickle with a bodice-cloth wound round it. Near the goddess are laid a cocoanut, a piece of blank paper, a pen, and an inkstand to write the destiny of the child. The paper, pen and ink are kept there during the night. On the twelfth day the child is laid in the cradle and named. The name is generally chosen by the parents or by some elder of the family and is given by women neighbours who come to witness the ceremony. Women fill the mother's lap with wheat, betelnuts, a cocoanut, dry dates and *khaṇa* (bodice cloth) and are given betel and turmeric and vermilion paste to rub on their cheeks and mark their brows.

Aitan.

Among priestly Liṅgāyatas when a boy is between seven and nine years old the *aitān* (initiation) is performed. A Jaṅgama astrologer is asked to choose a lucky day. The *guru* comes early in the morning of the day fixed, a square is made with a waterpot in the centre and one in each corner, each standing on a small heap of rice. White thread is passed round the necks of the pots. The boy's head is shaved and he is bathed and seated on a small wooden stool in front of the pot square. The *guru* recites several texts, whispers into the boy's ear, makes him recite a short hymn. During the ceremony the pipe and drum are played and at the close a feast is given and alms are distributed. After his initiation the boy is a priest and may not eat food without bathing and performing regular *liṅga* worship. *Dīkśa*, which means purification, may be undergone by any class of Liṅgāyatas except *Jaṅgamas*. A *dīkśa* raises a Pancam to be a Lokvant, a Lokvant to be a Śilavant and a Śilavant to be a Jaṅgama. By performing *dīkśa* girls of the Pancam, Lokavant, and Śilavant classes may marry into the classes above them. Many Liṅgayata men and women perform *dīkśa* before marriage or at any time before death to cleanse themselves from sin. As in *aitān* so in *dīkśa* the day is fixed by a Jaṅgama astrologer and except that *dīkśa* texts and different from *aitān* texts. the ceremony differs little from *aitān*. Five metal jars are set on the ground, four of them, one at each corner of a square and the fifth in the centre, each on a small heap of rice. A white thread is wound round the necks of the pots and betel leaves and vermilion are set in their mouths. The man or the woman on whose account the ceremony is performed is bathed and made to sit on

a woollen carpet in front of the pot square. The Jaṅgama recites verses and all present throw grains of rice mixed with vermilion over the person's head. The ceremony ends with a feast and the distribution of alms.

Liṅgāyatas have adult marriages at present, though in the past girls were married before they came of age. Usually the offer of marriage comes from the boy's father, but in case the girl's parents aspire for an educated son-in-law, the subject may be broached by the bride's party. Educated and advanced families allow their children some freedom in the choice of the mate, and obtain their consent before finalising the proposal. Before starting any negotiations, matters regarding endogamous and exogamous restrictions are carefully investigated and observed. In the past marriage among Liṅgāyatas was not very expensive as no dowry was required to be paid either to the girl or to the boy. However, in recent years the system has began to make its appearance.

The marriage day is fixed by a Jaṅgama astrologer and marriage booths are raised in front of the boy's and girl's houses. The first pole of the booth is driven in at a lucky moment. A marriage ceremony according to orthodox customs generally lasts for four days. On the first day comes the *viḍeghālṇē* (betel-serving) in token of the fact that the marriage settlement is made and is binding. The bride is decked with ornaments and in the presence of Jāngamas and other respectable members of the caste is given pieces of sugarcandy. On the second day come the Gaṇapati worship, the turmeric-rubbing, and the *gugul* (bedellium gum) ceremonies in honour of Vīrbhadra. In the *guguḷ* ceremony, which either the bride or bridegroom and their mothers must attend, two white-washed earthen jars, in form and size like those in which women fetch water, are cut in two a little below the middle where they are widest. The upper halves are turned upside down standing on their mouths and into the upper half the lower half is dropped so that the open side is upward. The wide-mouthed vessels thus prepared are filled with ashes. The ashes in the middle of each pot are damped and a stick about six inches long is fixed and wrapped round with a piece of cloth like a small torch. The two torches are lighted and the red powders *guguḷ* and *kuṅkū*, *gandh* (sandal-paste) and flower wreaths are thrown over them. Two Jaṅgamas (priests) or two kinsmen, dancing as they go, carry the pots either in their hands or on their heads in procession, with pipes and drums, to a river or well outside the village. When the pots are placed on the ground near the river or well, the head of the family washes the feet of the *svāmī* (monastery head) who goes with the procession, puts flowers on his feet, gives him a cocoanut and money and prostrates himself before him. After the *svāmī* worship, the torches are put out and the pots are broken. Betel is served to all present and money is given to the Jaṅgamas. The party go home silently without music.

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Marriage Ceremonies.

The *guguḷ* ceremony was formerly performed only when a vow was made to Vīrbhadra, but in most Liṅgāyata families it seems to have become a regular part of the marriage ceremony. On the third day comes the *devaka* (marriage guardian) ceremony. All Liṅgāyat families have the same *devaka*. It is a winnowing bamboo basket containing rice, turmeric, betel leaves and nuts and a closed earthen pot whose lid is tied on with cotton thread. The pot contains water and a few copper coins. Sometimes the *devaka* ceremony takes place a day or two before the marriage. After the guardian is in his place, the bridegroom is bathed and his brow is marked with ashes. He is dressed in rich clothes and a marriage coronet of *bhend* (water hemp) is tied on his brow. An hour or two before the marriage which is generally in the evening, the bridegroom starts in procession with music for the bride's. At the bride's, the bride and bridegroom sit side by side on ordinary *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) set in the centre of a square of metal pots like the square made for the purification or *dīkśa*. The bride is dressed in a simple white *sāḍi* and her brow is decked with a *bhend* (water-hemp) marriage coronet. The hems of the garments of the pair are tied together. The *ayyā* hands rice mixed vermilion to the guests and recites verses. The guests throw the red rice on the heads of the bride and the bridegroom as long as the *ayyā* recites verses. All this time music is played and muskets are fired. At the close of the recitation the lucky black glass bead string is tied round the bride's neck, the wedded couple are taken to bow to the house-gods and the knot of their garments is loosened. On the fourth night the bridegroom goes to a *maṭha* (monastery) with his wife in a great procession both riding on the back of a bullock or of late, on horseback. At the *maṭha* (monastery) the couple lay a cocoanut before the *svāmī* (head priest) and postrate themselves before him. From the *matha* the procession goes to the bridegroom's house, where the ceremony ends with a feast and the distribution of alms. On the way they break cocoanuts at places supposed to be haunted by evil spirits and throw to the spirits pieces of cocoanut.

Widow Marriage.

Widow marriage is forbidden among jangamas, śilvanats, and lokavants. Pancams occasionally marry widows. Barbers, oilmen, potters, washermen, and mahars allow and practise widow marriage. The Liṅgāyata widow may use a *sāḍi* of any colour, continue to wear the bodice and may wear ornaments except the nose-ring, the lucky neck-thread, and toe-rings. Still in the orthodox view a widow is held unlucky and is not asked to marriage and other festive ceremonies.

Death.

When a Liṅgāyata is on the point of death he is advised to distribute money in charity and if possible present a jaṅgama with a cow. His body is covered with sacred ashes. If he is well-to-do, the dying man performs the *vibhūtiville* (ashes and betel-giving) at a cost of Rs. 100 or more. This rite is believed

to cleanse the sin of the performer and is generally performed by old men and women. If a performer survives the rite he or she has to leave his or her house and pass the rest of their lives in a *maṭha* (monastery). Jaṅgamas are not required to undergo this rite as they are considered holy and not to need purifying. Sometimes a Jaṅgama is asked to recite verses. A few minutes before death the dying person is laid on a white blanket a little holy water is put into the mouth. After death the ornaments, if there are any, are removed from the body, the body washed in cold water in an open space near the house and is clad in full dress. The body is laid cross-legged slightly leaning against a wall for two to eight hours, or even longer if the dead is an old and influential person. If the dead is a Jaṅgama or an old man or woman, Jaṅgamas are asked to recite verses and the recitation is accompanied with music. If the dead has a wife, his wife's lucky thread, glass bangles, and toe-rings are taken off her body and laid in the canopied bier (*vimān*) specially prepared for the occasion. Plantain stems are tied to the upright poles of a chair, the leaves are fastened together into arches and the whole chair is decorated with flower wreaths. The dead body is seated cross-legged in the chair and the chair is borne by four friends or kinsmen. No fire is taken with the procession and no women go with it. If the family is well-to-do musicians play ahead in the funeral procession. Music is always employed when a Jaṅgama dies. As the body is borne to the grave men in the procession cry out "Śiva Śiva", or "Hara Hara", and at intervals betel leaves and copper coins are thrown on the road. Meanwhile the grave is being dug by labourers. The grave is 4½ feet long, 2¾ feet wide and 3 feet deep In the east side of the grave a niche large enough to held the dead body is cut, and the inside of the grave is cowdunged and purified with *pādodaka*, that is, water in which a Jaṅgama's feet have been washed. On the outside of the grave, at each corner, is set an earthen *liṅga* with an earthen bull in front of each *liṅga*. The dead is lowered into the grave by his friends and kinsmen and laid in the niche facing west. The *liṅga* worn by the deceased is taken out of its case, which is kept by the heirs, and laid in the body's left hand. The priest washes the *liṅga*, rubs ashes, and lays *bel* leaves on it. He hands *bel* leaves to all present and drops some on the head of the dead and all drop their leaves after him. If the dead is a *svāmī* a note signed by his successor asking that the doors of heaven may be opened to let the dead into the presence of Śiva is tied round the neck. The grave is filled with salt and ashes till the body is covered, and then with earth, and over the earth one or two slabs of stone are laid. The priest stands on the stone and the mourners wash his feet, lay flowers and *bel* leaves on them, and give him money. Money is also given to beggars. When there is music, it goes on till after the priest's feet are worshipped. The whole party go to a river or well, bathe, and return in wet clothes to the house of mourning where each of them sips a little *karuṇā* literally grace, which is of higher

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efficacy than *pādodaka* (foot-water) and over which a large number of texts have been repeated. Jaṅgamas are fed and alms are given to the poor. On the first and sometimes on the fifth day the old clothes of the dead are given to priests and poor men. To the *svāmī* are given a pair of shoes, an umbrella, pots, and among this very well-to-do perhaps a cow. On the third, fifth, or seventh day after death Jaṅgamas and the near kinsmen of the dead are asked to dinner, and after this the family are considered pure and strangers may take food in the house. No monthly or yearly śrāddhas (mind-rites) are performed in honour of the dead. If the family is well-to-do, a tomb is built with a masonry *liṅga* and *nandī* (bull) on it and they are worshipped daily by some member of the family.

Liṅgāyatas are bound together by a strong fellow-feeling. Social disputes are normally referred to the *svāmī* or monastery head whose decision is generally accepted. An appeal lies to the head of the Kaḍāppā maṭha (monastery) on a hill six miles south of Kolhapur, who is the head Jaṅgama of the province. Modern education has now begun to spread rapidly among Liṅgāyats and they are taking to service and the professions. A large number are weavers, several are retail dealers and some are husbandmen. Except the priests no Liṅgāyata lives on alms and few are labourers.

BACKWARD CLASSES.

THE BACKWARD CLASSES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, as in the State in general, consist of three distinct groups—The Scheduled Castes or *Harijans*, the Scheduled Tribes, and the other (unscheduled) Backward Classes. The communities known as criminal tribes before the repeal of the Criminal Tribes Act, are now included in the three-fold division. Of the classified list of backward communities the following ones are found in the district :—

Scheduled Castes :—(1) Bhaṅgi (441) ; (2) Cāmbhār (19,089) ; (3) Dhor (1,231) ; (4) Mahār (1,01,720) ; (5) Māng (16,538) ; and (6) Māṅg-gāruḍi (56).

Scheduled Tribes:—(1) Phāse-paradhī (165) ; (2) Koṅkaṇā (49).

Other Backward Classes :—Bāgaḍī (181) ; Bāva (823) ; Beldār (468) ; Beraḍ (4,752) ; Bhoi (1,180) ; Buruḍ (631) ; Ḍombārī (124) ; Dāvari (98) ; Gāruḍī (199) ; Ghisāḍī (57) ; Gondhaḷī (1,358) ; Jogatīṇ (48) ; Jogī (24) ; Joshi-Kuḍbuḍe (164) ; Kaikāḍī (289) ; Koḷī-Mahādeo (1,564) ; Koḷī-Suryavaṅśi (294) ; Kolhāṭī (253) ; Kanjārbhāṭ (200) ; Korvī (1,450) ; Lamāṇī (100) ; Nandivāle (34) ; Pātharvaṭ (650) ; Rāmośi (857) ; Saṇagar (1,413) ; Śikalgār (48) ; Vaḍār (4,032) ; Vaidu (62) ; Valhar (339) ; Vāsudeo (16)[1].

[1] The figures in brackets are 1951 population figures from revenue records for each of the community.

The population of the backward classes in the district in 1951 was 1,61,436, which was 13·15 per cent. of the total population. It was distributed among the three divisions as under :— (1) Scheduled Castes — 1,39,075 ; (2) Scheduled Tribes — 214 ; and (3) Other Backward Classes — 22,147.

Scheduled Castes : According to the *varṇa* system Hindus consider themselves divided into four divisions called *varṇas*, viz., (1) *Brāhmaṇas*, (2) *Vaiśyas*, (3) *Kṣatriyas*, and (4) *Śudras*. The Scheduled Castes belong to the fourth order and they were considered 'untouchables' by caste Hindus. By article 17 of the constitution of India 'untouchability is abolished and its practice in any form is forbidden.

Scheduled Tribes: These are the aboriginal tribes living in hills and forests. Such tribes are very few in Kolhapur District. *Other Backward Classes* :—These include Hindu castes which are backward educationally, socially and economically.

Each of these backward communities has its peculiar manners and customs, but it will be difficult to give here details of them all. Details of only such communities as have either a considerable population or some distinctive characteristics are given below :

Scheduled Castes.

OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES: Bhaṅgis work mainly as scavengers in Municipalities. Traditionally Cāmbhārs are leather workers. Dhors are tanners ; Mahārs are village servants doing all types of low manual work ; Maṅg-gāruḍis was once a criminal nomadic tribe, and Māṅgs who include a number of subdivisions work as cattle-dealers, cobblers, rope-makers, musicians and snake-charmers.

Bhaṅgis.

Bhaṅgis or nightsoil men are returned as numbering 441 in Kolhapur district and are found in towns and cities where they work as scavengers in municipalities. They have two endogamous divisions among them as (1) Muslim Bhaṅgis, and (2) Kaṭhevāḍi Hindu Bhaṅgis who are called 'Halālkhors'.

In 1947[1] in Kolhapur city there were about 75 families of the community with a population of about 300. About 40 families belonged to the Malkane Panth and were natives of the Kolhapur territory. The rest were called Pardeshis, who belonged to the Lalvili division and were recent (1905) migrants from Gujarāt brought from Bombay to break a local strike. Bhaṅgis speak an incorrect Hindustani at home and Hindustāni and Marāṭhī outside. They live in houses which are very simple, mainly tin sheds, built away from other caste Hindu localities. In Kolhapur city they live in Municipal chawls built

[1] Social Survey of Kolhapur City. Vol. III, p. 215 N. V. Sovani.

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People and Culture.
BACKWARD CLASSES.
Scheduled Castes.
Bhangis.

at different places. Both males and females smoke tobacco. With the introduction of prohibition the habit of drinking which was fairly common had to be given up.

In religion Bhangis are half Muslims, half Hindus, repeating prayers from the Koran and at the same time worshipping Hindu gods. Pardeshi Bhangis maintain contact with their native villages and often visit them. Marriages, however, do take place locally as well as outside. Almost all from the community keep to their traditional occupation of scavenging and sweeping. The Pardeshi Bhangis have no *Pañcās.*[1] They elect a *coudhari,* a *jamādār,* a *paṭel* and a *pyādā* from among themselves for settling caste disputes. Among the local Bhangis the office of *Meheter* and *Gadkari* were hereditary. They settled caste disputes, marriages etc. and imposed fines for misconduct. Recently, however, the younger generation has tended to disregard these traditional hereditary caste elders. Bhangis rank as the lowest of all Hindu castes. Literacy among them is very low; there is no improvement in the old method of scavenging and hence other Hindus never try to mix among them freely for any purpose, social or religious.

Chambhars.

Cāmbhārs (leather workers) are returned as numbering 19,089 and are found generally in every village in the district. They claim descent from Aralaya, one of the sons and great worshippers of Śiv, who incurred Śiv's displeasure by making a pair of shoes of his own skin which he presented to the god. As a punishment he was doomed to be a cobbler for life. They have no memory of any former home. In Kolhāpūr district they belong to two divisions, Harāḷīs and Cevāḷīs. Though they neither eat together nor intermarry, these two classes are similar to one another in every respect. As a class Cāmbhārs are fair, middle-sized, a little round-shouldered, and weak, with large gray eyes, gaunt cheeks, thin lips, and lank head and face hair. Their women are well built with regular features and often not very dark skinned. They speak Marāṭhī and live in one-storeyed houses with mud and sun-dried walls and tiled or thatched roofs, with a small open veranda and courtyard where they tan hides and work in leather. Besides their working tools and a store of hides, their house goods include metal and earth vessels, quilts, low stools, and blankets. They rear cows and buffaloes and poultry. Their staple food includes millet bread, pulse, and a pounded mixture of onions, garlic and chillies. They eat flesh except beef and pork. As a class the main business of the community is to prepare boots, shoes and sandals, etc. In villages Cāmbhārs are to some extent engaged in tanning business also. They prepare leather bags, purses, belts and other petty leather articles. A few earn their living as husbandmen. Cāmbhārs worship all Hindu gods and goddesses, chiefly Mahādev, Viṭhobā and Yallammā and keep the usual feasts and fasts. Their priests who are

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[1] Social Survey of Kolhapur City. Vol. III, page 215 N. V. Sovani.

Brāhmaṇs name the lucky day for marriages and conduct the ceremony. They make pilgrimages to Singanapur in Satara, to Yallammā in Belgaum and to Jotibā's hill in Vāḍi-Ratnagiri nine miles north-west of Kolhapur. They have a religious teacher to whom they pay a yearly money tribute but whom they do not ask to settle social disputes which are referred to *Pancāyat* (council of elderly castemen). In Kolhapur city (1947) the majority of the community was found engaged in the traditional occupation of making leather goods. The heads of 15-20 families were working as clerks or teachers in Government offices and schools; some were in the local police force and some had been recruited in the army during World War II. The whole community acted as a *Pancāyat* (caste council), enforced caste customs and rules and punished offenders by fines, excommunication etc. The community was generally very poor, educationally backward and literacy was very low.

Mahars.

Mahārs are returned as numbering 1,01,720 and are found in considerable numbers all over the district. The community has no memory of any former settlement. In the older generation the names in common use among men are Konḍunāk, Limbnāk, Māsnāk, Rāmnak, and among women Bhimi, Jji, Rāni, Taini, and Yelli. Like South Konkan Mahārs the men take *nāk*, apparently a corruption of *naik* (leader), after their names. There is documentary evidence to say that in the Marāṭhā regime Mahārs took part in battles and showed good fighting qualities.

Social Organisation.

Of the many divisions into which Mahārs say they are divided, thirteen are represented in Kolhapur. They are: Anḍvan (virgin-born) Beḷes (broom, basket and mat makers) Jhāḍes (sweepers), Ghaḍśīs (musicians) Ghaṭkamblīs, Gonḍvans, (beggars), Heḍśis, Kabules, Kuḍvans, Laḍvans, Pans (flute-players), Sonkāmbḷis and Saḷaḍis. These divisions once neither interdined nor intermarried but the restrictions are now relaxed, though to some extent, they may be observed regarding marriage. Within these divisions the community had two endogamous divisions, namely Bhāṭ and Ḍhegu-megu. The Bhaṭ used to preside over marriage, funeral and other social ceremonies and also served as messengers carrying news of social incidents to relatives. The ancestors of the Ḍhegu-megus were said to have brought *megh* (rain) by prayer and they were *gurus* (teachers) of the community. Both these divisions now identify themselves with the community and intermarry. There are also a number of exogamous divisions known as *Kuḷs* (surnames) in the community, some of which are Abbuṭe, Ambedkar, Gāyakwaḍ, Ingle, Jādhav, Kāmbḷe, Pawār, Vāghmārē etc. A caste organisation presided over by a *pañca* called mehatar once closely bound together the members of each endogamous division. Breaches against caste rules were punished by putting the offender out of caste. A *nimb* twig

CHAPTER 3. — People and Culture. BACKWARD CLASSES. Scheduled Castes. *Social Organisation.*

was thrown on the offender's house and all were enjoined to keep aloof from the offender's family on pain of losing caste. These caste organisations have now become loose. Mahārs were once held to be impure by caste Hindus. The village barber would not shave them nor were they allowed to draw water from the village well. Such inhibitions which the community once had to suffer along with other 'untouchables' have now been legally removed by specific provisions in the Constitution of India.

Except those living in the villages bordering on Kannada country who speak Kannaḍa, most Mahārs speak an incorrect and oddly pronounced Marāṭhī. When a Mahār meets a man of his own caste he greets him with "*namastu*" (a bow to you); to others he says. "*johār*". They are generally dark with irregular features and flat noses. They live in the outskirts of towns and villages in special quarters known as *mahārwāḍā*, generally in untidy and ill-cared for houses of sun-burnt brick or stone and mud walls and tiled or thatched roofs. Mahārs once considered it wrong to live in a house for which rent has to be paid. In villages the men dress in a loincloth or waist cloth, a blanket as a shoulder-cloth, a coat or smock and a Marāṭhā turban. The women plait their hair in a braid which hangs down the back and wear the full Marāṭhā *sāri* (robe) without passing the skirt back between the feet and a *coḷī* (bodice) with short sleeves and a back.

Religion.

Mahārs consider themselves as Brahmanic Hindus. They cannot tell whether they are Bhāgvats or Smārts. Some Mahārs have Brahman Gurus; some have also *gurus* (teachers) of their own caste. Some who are followers of Cokhāmeḷā (*vārkaris*) wear necklaces of *tuḷsī* beads and make periodical pilgrimages to Aḷandi and Pandharpūr. They worship all gods and goddesses, their favourite deities being Bahirobā, Khaṇḍobā, Mhasobā and Viṭhobā. Their peculiar deities are Marī—the cholera goddess, Pāṇḍhar—the village site goddess, and Thaḷ—the settlement place spirit. They also worship their ancestors' brass images as house gods, and they have generally faith in soothsaying, sorcery and witchcraft. Some Mahārs have recently adopted Buddhism as their religion.

Customs.

Like all Hindu communities in the region, Mahārs worship Saṭvāi Goddess on the fifth day after birth. A few spots of sandal and turmeric paste are daubed on the wall near the mother's cot and are offered worship. The woman is held impure for eight days after child birth and the naming ceremony is held on the ninth day. When the child grows old, its first hair are clipped by the maternal uncle.

Marriage within the same *kuḷ* and with mother's sister's daughter or sister's daughter is not allowed. The custom of giving dowry to the bride is current in the community, but now-a-days the parents of the girl offer dowry to an educated

Customs.

or well-placed boy. On the day before the marriage day the boy is rubbed with turmeric paste and bathed, and his kins-people and friends take the rest of the paste to the girl's house, rub the girl with the paste, and present her with a *sāḍi* and a few ornaments. On that day a sapling of mango or saplings of Saundad, Āpṭā. Umbar and Kaḷamb or Jambhūḷ as per family custom are brought by the elder sister and her husband and then tied with wheat bread and an axe to the *muhurta medha*. The marriage ceremony takes place generally at the bride's place and the bridegroom goes there in a procession. At the time of marriage, the bride and the bridegroom stand in bamboo baskets filled with grains and with a grinding stone in it, or on *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) with a curtain of cloth held between them. Formerly a person of the bhāt sub-division of the community used to preside over the ceremony. Now-a-days he is often replaced by an elder or an educated person. He chants hymns, throws rice grains over the couple and removes the curtain. The assembled also shower rice grains over the couple and the bride and the bridegroom then garland each other and they are wedded. Divorce as well as widow marriage is allowed. However, a widow is not permitted to marry a member of the deceased husband's family.

Mahārs bury their dead and mourn for three days. On the third day the chief mourner shampoos the bearers' shoulders and gives from food before any one of the family eats, and while the bearers are eating every one leaves the house.

Occupation.

The hereditary occupation of the community is village service and skinning dead animals. They act as guides and messengers to public officers travelling on duty, call landholders to pay the land assessment at the village office, watch boundaries and the village office, repair the *cāvḍi* (village office) and *Gāṅvkusu* (village gate) and sweep the village roads. To carry cowdung cakes to the burning ground and to dig graves is a part of their duty to the villagers. Most of them enjoy a small Government payment, partly in cash and partly in land. The chief source of their income is the *balutē* (yearly grain allowance).[1]

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[1] The chief dues for Mahars' services to the villagers allowed by the Muslim and Maratha Government were ; *Sitadevi* or a part of a standing sugarcane crop ; village or town gate offering ; *Holi* food offerings on the full-moon of Phalgun : *bendur* grain gifts on the full-moon of Ashadh hides of dead cattle ; *hat shekne* (hand warming), a money gift for watching the fire made for boiling sugarcane juice *ghar-takka* (home-money), money paid for digging graves, grain lying on and about the thr shing floor when the floor is used for the first time, grain at the bottom of a *pev* (grain pit ,the rice strewn on the two low stools which are set for the bride and bridegroom ; a yearly pair of sandals for watching the village or town gate ; *rukka* (marriage gift , including two coppers in cash, a piece of cocoa-kernel and a handful of rice ; *oti-pati* (lap-tax) that is handfuls of grain put into the laps of Mahar women at the first treading of the grain : money thrown into her platter when a Mahar woman comes to wave a lamp round the head of the bride's or bridegroom's mother ; *madhe-pade* (carcass-tax) ; *Manguli*, that is gift for winding a string round the village on the no-moon of *Ashadh* and of *Kartika* *ran-sodnen* (forest-leaving) that is grain ears given to Mahars on the first cutting and stacking *pendha* (straw) ; and *lagin takka* or (marriage-rupee) that is 4 *as.* given to the village Mahar when the booth is raised.

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Occupation.

For their private services they are paid in cash or, what they like better, in cooked food. Of recent years complaints have arisen in villages near large centres of industry that māhārs have been so depleted in numbers by migration to cities as to leave an inadequate staff for village requirements. As unskilled labourers they are employed in large numbers. In villages some are husbandmen and a few are bricklayers. Now-a-days with pieces of waste land assigned to them in villages they have proved good agriculturists. The community is making good progress in education and many have found employment in various branches of Government service.

Other Backward Classes.

The Other Backward Classes consist of several communities each bearing a caste-name suggestive of the occupation once hereditarily followed. Where the hereditary occupation has ceased to be lucrative, strict adherance to it has naturally dwindled, but caste name has remained in tact. Of these communities some are mainly craftsmen, *e.g.*. beldārs who work in stone and earth, hew stone and dig wells ; saṇgars who weave and sell coarse blankets, their women doing as much work as the men ; pātharvats are stone dressers, and buruḍs who make bamboo baskets, winnowing fans, mats and cages. Communities such as beraḍs (huntsmen) bhois (fishers), koḷis (ferrymen), ghisāḍis (tinkers) and rāmośīs have now mostly turned into labourers. A number of small communities such as bāvās, ḍāvaris, ḍambāris, gāruḍis, gondhaḷīs, jogṭins, jogis, jośis, kolhaṭis, nandivales ; vaidus, valhārs and vāsudevs more or less live a life of mendicancy and can be classed as beggars. Communities such as kaikāḍis, kanjārbhaṭs, korvis, lamaṇs and vaḍārs which shift from place to place to earn a living are "unsettled tribes", though a few families from each have now settled in villages and have taken to agriculture and allied pursuits.

Berads.

Beraḍs, numbering 4,752, are found all over the district and chiefly in Gadhinglaj taluka. Enthoven writing about this community says, "the term Bed (*pl.* Bedaru) seems to mean hunters, from *bete,* hunting. The Marathas know the tribe as Beraḍs and Musalmans as Beḍars." They are a settled class and live in regular houses. They seem to have come to Kolhāpūr from Belgaum under a *naik* (chief) called Gudadapā and settled at the village of Kuldini. Gudadapā gathered a large band of Beraḍs and committed gang robberies in the surrounding districts. The hard-heartedness of beraḍs became proverbial as they moved about the country committing highway robberies. They were then for several years steadily hunted down by Government and forced to change plundering for tillage.

In origin the Berāḍs are an aboriginal tribe of the Kannada districts and it grew up by additions from many other castes, such as Kurub. Kaghaligars. Vakkāls, etc., superior to the original

stock in the social scale. They are dark, strong, muscular and coarse featured with gray lively eyes, flat nose, round high-boned cheeks, flabby lips, short and lank head hair, small moustache, and ear-locks. They live in one-storeyed houses with mud and sun-dried brick walls and tiled or thatched roofs. Though small and poor their houses are clean and neat. They own cattle and rear dogs which are very useful to them in watching their cows and buffaloes and in hunting. Their staple food is millet bread, pulse sauce seasoned with garlic, onions, salt, chillies and vegetables. They eat all kinds of flesh except beef, particularly on holidays and when they can afford it. They give caste feasts at births, betrothals, marriages, and deaths, when the guests are served with wheat cakes, pulse, vegetables, and mutton and sit all night singing *lavaṇis* (songs) to the accompaniment of the *ḍaph* (drum) and the *ṭunṭunē* (one-stringed fiddle). The men, like local agriculturists, dress in a loincloth or a pair of drawers, a shoulder-cloth, a shirt and a coarse Marāṭhā turban. The women wear a Marāṭhā *lugaḍē* and bodice and do not pass the end of the robe back between the feet. Both men and women have spare clothes for great days and wear ornaments like those worn by Marāṭhās. Beraḍs in Kolhāpūr worship all gods and goddesses, and their family deities are Mahādeo, Hanumān and Yallāmmā. They keep most holidays, chiefly *Dasarā*, *Divāḷi* and the *Aśvin* and *Mārgaśīrṣa* new moons, on which. like the Raddies of Karnatak, some perform the *ḍaṅgorā* (field rite). The religious minded fast on all Mondays of Śrāvaṇ and on all ordinary Saturdays and Tuesdays when they take only one meal in the evening. Besides food cooked after bathing, on all big days they offer their gods cocoanuts, dry dates, sugar, molasses, camphor and incense. They have faith in soothsaying, astrology and sorcery. Their priests are ordinary Brāhamaṇs who conduct their marriages, but at deaths they employ a Liṅgāyat priest to conduct the obsequial ceremonies. They have a hereditary married *guru* (religious teacher), who belongs to their own caste and is the religious and social head of their community

Like other Hindus of the region, Beraḍs worship goddess Saṭvai on the fifth day after the birth of a child. On that day, either five small stones or five small heaps of jowar grains are worshipped in the name of the goddess, and the stone under which the after birth was buried received similar attention.

For the purpose of marriage Beraḍs observe the exogamous subdivisions called *byāḍays*, marriage in the same *byāḍag* being prohibited. The custom of accepting dowry by the bride is current. On a day previous to the marriage day, the persons of the bride and bridegroom are besmeared with turmeric powder at their places. During marriage rites, the couple stands opposite each other on *pāṭs* (low wooden stools), with

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Berads.

a curtain of cloth held between it. A Brahman priest chants marriage hymns and throws rice grains over the couple. As soon as the curtain is removed the bride and the bridegroom exchange their places five times and garland each other. Then the Brahman priest ties into a knot the ends of the couple's garments and on behalf of the bridegroom fastens a *mangal-sūtra* (lucky thread) round the bride's neck.

Divorce as well as widow marriage are permissible by custom. However, a widow cannot marry in the *byāḍag* of the deceased husband, and if a bachelor was to marry a widow he had first to undergo a marriage ceremony with a rui *shrub*. The custom of dedicating girls as *devdāssis* either in the name of goddess Yallāmmā or god Hanumān to render them eligible for prostitution seems to have now died out in the community. The married dead are cremated; children and bachelors are buried. The chief mourner moves five times round the lighted pyre with a trickling earthen water pot on his shoulder. On return to the house of the deceased from the cremation ground, the mourners after a plunge into water keep a grass blade on the spot where the deceased had breathed his last. On the third day the chief mourner collects ashes from the burnt pyre and later with due ceremony may install in the house for worship a *Mākā*, an impression of a figure on a small metal piece. From that day the deceased becomes a deified ancestor.

In the past, many members of the community often used to indulge in anti-social activities but, thanks to educative attempts at reforming them, the community have now generally become a class of hardworking husbandmen. At some places they are also engaged as village watchmen especially for guarding the fields of agriculturists and also the village. They are slowly taking advantage of educational facilities and the educated are going in for Government service such as teachers, talathis, clerks, peons, police, etc.

Vadars.

Vaḍārs (quarrymen) are returned as numbering 4032 in the district. They are divided into three divisions, namely, Dagāḍ of Kalla Vaḍārs known as Kālkuṭagīs, Gaḍī Vaḍārs, and Mati Vaḍārs. In Kolhapur city Kalkuṭagīs were the earliest residents, the other two divisions being reported to have come to the city in the first decade of the present century. Vaḍārs are black, strong, well built and generally spare, and their home speech is Telugu. They live outside a village in crude huts made of sticks, mats and sugarcane leaves. Their staple food is millet, but they eat fish, fowl and flesh of all kinds, Kālkuṭagīs do the work of stone dressing and stone building; Gaḍi Vaḍārs of quarrying stones and transporting them on low solid wheeled carts; Māṭi Vaḍārs sink wells and do excavations and earth work. These are their traditional occupations

and even today most of the Vaḍārs stick to them. Some have evolved into petty contractors who undertake earth or stone work.

Formerly the divisions of Vaḍārs used to dine together but did not inter-marry, but now they have ceased to be independent sub-castes as they take food with one another and intermarry. At present there is no *pancāyat* (caste council) or caste elder among them, but 50 years back there used to be a caste elder known as *ṭhekedār*, who settled disputes, arranged and permitted marriages and whose authority was unchallenged. He had also the authority to fine people in the community for misbehaviour etc. Some of the traditional customs among the community still persist; for instance, their women do not wear the bodice and girls who could wear glass bangles on both hands before marriage wear glass bangles on the left hand and a *kada* (brass bangle) on the right hand when married. However, Kalkuṭagīs in Kolhapur city seem to have now abandoned the customs without being socially ostracised.

On the fifth day after the birth of a child as Vaḍārs feast married women and name the child on the night of the eleventh. They do not consult astrologers for lucky days or for a name. The mother is considered impure for thirty days after child birth Their favourite gods are Māruti and Vyankobā, they keep the usual fasts and festivals. Their marriages generally occupy two particular days, viz. Sunday and Monday. On Sunday the turmeric ceremony takes place. On Monday morning an iron post is fixed in the ground and the bride and the bridegroom are made to stand near it. Rice and holy water given by the *guru* (teacher) are thrown over the boy and girl but no texts are recited. A dinner party on that day ends the ceremony. Divorce as well as widow marriages are allowed. However, a widow is not permitted to marry a member of the deceased husband's family. The dead are either cremated or buried. The community is hardworking, industrious and prepared to go wherever it can get work.

Dombaris and Kolhatis.

The communities classed as beggars display peculiarities of professional skill which by themselves are very interesting. Some of them enjoying showmanship with begging, e.g. *Dombārīs* or *Kolhāṭī* form a nomadic community of acrobats. On Gujarat side a division of the community is known as Gopāḷs. Dombārīs earn a living as tumblers, rope-dancers, and beggars. Boys and girls are trained to tumble at the age of five and are good tumblers at the age of eleven with appliances such as a drum, a flute, a leather strap, ropes and poles fifteen to

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twenty feet long. They wander from place to place giving performances of athletic games and feats. Domْbārī women are also known as expert tattooers.

Other Backward Classes. *Dombaris and Kolhatis.*

As Kolhāṭīs the hereditary occupation of the community is to prepare combs and other articles from horns of animals and form a Tamāśa troupe. In a Tamāśa performance men play on muscial instruments like *ḍholakī, tunṭunē, ḍaph, zāñj*, etc. while women dance.

Garudis.

Gāruḍīs who are itinerant jugglers and snake-charmers live by performing with snakes and by begging. They are found all over the district but are said to have come from Saurashtra.

Vaidus.

Vaidus, who appear to have come into the district from the Karnatak, are a nomadic community of drug-hawkers. Their home tongue is Telugu, but with others they speak a corrupt Marathi. They generally camp outside towns and villages in cloth or mat tents which they carry on donkeys. When they go drug-hawking, they sling across their shoulder a bamboo pole hung with one or two bags containing healing roots, herbs, hides and poisons. They are ready to heal with their medicines any disease from a cold to a fever. The women of the community beg and sell herbs, needles and glass beads. No Vaidu is allowed to work as labourer; if one is found working for hire, he is excommunicated.

Bavas.

Some communities of beggars profess begging on religious ground. Bairāgīs (ascetics) who admit all Hindus, except what were formerly known as the depressed classes, within their fold are a class of religious beggars and wander all over the country, sometimes in bands and sometimes singly. They dress in ochre-coloured clothes, smear their bodies with ashes and grow their hair long, wearing it either dishevelled or coiled round the head. A few of them refrain from cutting their hair and nails and undergo bodily toutures They call themselves devotees of Viṣṇu and visit many of the famous Viṣṇu shrines. Their *gurus* (teachers) who are also Bairāgīs have *maṭhs* (monasteries) in different holy places in India. The *guru* is succeeded by his favourite disciple. When a man wishes to become a Bairāgī he approaches a distinguished Bairāgī and tells him about his wish to become his *celā* (disciple). On a fixed day the novice is stripped of his clothes and is given a loin cloth to wear and a *homa* (burnt-offering) is made. The novice then takes a vow of poverty, celibacy and pilgrimage to all holy places in India.

Gosavis.

Similar to Bairāgīs there exists a community of religious beggars known as *Gosāvīs* found either wandering or settled all over the district. They are divided into five classes: *Bān, Bhārti, Gori. Puri* and *Sarasvati*, who except Bhārtis and

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Gosavis.

Purīs, eat together and intermarry. They are recruited from all Hindus except what were formerly known as the depressed classes. The body of Gosāvis include those who willingly became Gosāvis and children presented to Gosāvis by their parents. Gosāvis wear ochre-coloured clothes like Bairāgis but unlike them dine with Kuṇbis and eat goats, sheep and fowls. They freely smoke tobacco and hemp and many of them were reported to have had no compunction to drink country liquor before the introduction of prohibition. Though at the initiation they take a vow of poverty and celibacy, many of them are known to have been traders, money-lenders, and a few were *inam* (rent-free) landholders. In former days they wandered in armed bands, waged war with Bairāgis, and plundered the country they passed through. Some Gosāvis marry and some keep mistresses, and those who live a single life are generally attended by a *celā* (disciple) who is their heir and successor.

Joshis.

Joshis, who are also known as *Cuḍbuḍke* Joshis, Davaris or Piṅgḷes, wander from house to house and village to village telling fortunes and begging. A Cuḍbuḍke Joshi got up for his begging tour is a quaint figure. He is dressed in a large dirty white turban with a red cloth turned over it, or a long white coat reaching below his knees and a tattered silk-bordered shoulder-cloth In one hand is a book or almanac by referring to which he pretends to foretell fortunes and in the other is the *Cuḍbuḍke*, the eponymous hourglass-shaped drum. A knotted cord is fastened to the drum and when the drum is shaken the knot strikes against the membrane of the drum and makes a tinkling sound It is a common practice with some Joshis to rise at three in the morning and go to some ruined buildings or large trees outside the village, where they consult the spotted owlet (*piṅgḷā*), whose notes they profess to understand. About four or five o'clock they come back to the village and, standing at the door of each house and sounding their drum, awaken the people and tell them their fortune. Their forecast may forebode evil for some inmates who, growing uneasy over it, consult the Joshi and pay his fees. This occupation of the Cuḍbuḍke Joshis is declining in popularity as few believe in their prophecies.

Gondhaḷis and Others.

Gondhaḷis call themselves votaries of Aṁbābāi of Kolhapur, Bhavāni of Tuljāpur and many other goddesses. They beg from door to door for grain, clothes, and money in the name of the goddesses. Some form a troupe and perform the *goṅdhaḷ* dance with the accompaniment of *saṁbaḷ*, *tuntuṇē* and *tāḷ* and entertain people with their songs. Dāvris play on the *daur* drum and have the ancient and still respected privilege of living in the out-houses of the temples of Rankobā and Bahirobā. The Jogtis belong to a religious order recruited from all castes of Hindus. The order is kept up by children dedicated to the

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Other Backward Classes.
Gondhalis and Others.

goddess *Yellāmmā*, the boys so dedicated being known as Jogtis. They make their living by begging in the name of the goddess. Nandivālas take their name from Nandi, a trained bull dressed in smart clothes with fringes of jingling bells and bell necklaces. They beg from house to house lẹading the Nandi and making him nod at the signal of a peculiar note they sound on the drum by percussion with a bent stick. Vāsudevs are professional beggars who for begging purpose rise early in the morning, put on a tall hat adorned with peacock feathers and a brass top, and a full skirted coat. Equipped with *ṭāḷs* (two metal cups), *cipḷyās* (two wodden pincers), brass bells, jingling rings and a wooden whistle. they move about the streets begging from door to door, singing to the accompaniment of the *ṭāḷs* and *cipḷyās*. Sometimes, when they are three or four, they dance in circle.

Scheduled Tribes.

THERE ARE TWO COMMUNITIES, viz., (1) Phānse-pārdhis, and (2) Koṅkaṇās in Kolhapur district who are classed as 'Scheduled Tribes'.

Phanse-Paradhis.

Phānse-pāradhīs who derive their name from *phānse* — noose, and *pāradhis* — hunters, belong to a wandering tribe of game hunters. They number about 165 in Kolhapur district. They are known to have once carried the business of snaring and hunting wild animals and birds with the help of nets and hunting dogs. As a class Phānse-pāradhis are robust, well-built and of medium statue. They are rather dark in comple-xion. Migrating originally from Saurashtra they speak Gujarāti, but also know Kannad, Marāṭhī and Hindustanī. They profess Hinduism, worship Hindu gods and goddesses, the goddess Tuḷajābhavāni receiving special reverence. They are superstitious and have a strong faith in sorcery and witchcraft.

The community is spread over in different camps, each camp consisting of several families. A camp has got its own leader called *pāṭil*. There are a number of exogamous divi-sions called *kūḷs* in the community and they bear Marāṭhī surnames such as Chavāṇ, Kāḷe, Nelkar. Powār, Rāṭhoḍ, Sheṭe etc. It is said these *kūḷs* had names of Gujarati origin, such as Khetiya, Khidiya, Mandhiya, Narakhatia, Painpalajiya, Saundia, etc. The *kūḷs* found in Kolhapur are mainly Chavāṇ. Kāḷe and Powār, each assigned with a hereditary social function. The chief leader or *pātil* comes from the Kāḷe *kūḷ*, the *sarpanch* belongs to Chavāṇ *kūḷ* and a Pawār presides over all religious affairs.

Marriages between members of the same clan (surname) or of allied clan are prohibited. Polygamy which was once allowed and practised is now prevented by the Hindu Marriage

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Phanse-Paradhis.

Act, 1955. The offer of marriage comes from the boy's father and is accepted by the chief person from the bride by accepting a *viḍā* and a rupee from the boy's father. A betrothal ceremony may take place several years in advance, the marriage being celebrated when the couple comes of age. A convenient day for the marriage is fixed by a person from the Pawār clan (surname) who also officiates at the ceremony. On the marriage day the bride and bridegroom are decked with chaplets of *pipaḷ* leaves, a tassel of thread hanging over each temple. The skirts of the bride's and bridegroom's robes are knotted together seven times, the priest and the guests throw red rice over the pair's heads, and the marriage is complete.

Divorce as well as widow marriage are allowed. A widow can marry her deceased husband's younger brother. Any other person who is desirous of marrying the widow has to give Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 to her parents or guardians. Widow marriage is performed at night at the widow's place and the only ceremony followed is the exchange of a dish of *shevayā* (spaghetti) by the couple.

The community cremates the dead and observes funeral and post-funeral rites similar to those of other backward communities in the region.

Phānse-pāradhīs, as they generally live away from village sites, cannot avail of school facilities available to other villagers and have therefore remained backward in education. Efforts are being made to start one *Āshram* school for their children and they are being persuaded to settle at Ujaḷāiwādī. A co-operative farming society has been organised for the benefit of Phānse-pāradhis and Kanjārbhāṭs and a land measuring about 325 acres has been given to them for cultivation. A co-operative housing society has been organised and a land of 20 acres granted to them for their housing accommodation. Further, a co-operative labour society has been formed and registered for them and Government has granted a loan of Rs. 5,000 for the working of the society. Because of these measures the community appears to have changed a great deal. They are now engaged in the agriculture and other suitable pursuits with the result that their former anti-social tendency seems to be on the wane.

Konkanas.

Koṅkaṇās with a negligible population of about 49 in the district are mainly found in Rādhānagarī taluka and Gaganbavḍā mahal. They live on agriculture and agricultural labour and by sale of wood brought from the forests. They also rear cattle and sheep. Their customs are similar to those of other backward Hindu communities in the district.

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MUSLIMS.

MUSLIMS, ACCORDING TO THE 1951 CENSUS, are returned as numbering 56,356 (*m.* 29,225; *f.* 27,131) in the district of *Kolhapur or 4·59 per cent. of the population. In 1881 the per*centage was 4·12. Their tract-wise distribution over the district is as follows :—

•*Urban tract*: 30,662 (*m.* 15,908; *f.* 14,754) — Karvir, Kagal, 3,474 (*m.* 1,765; *f.* 1,709); Hatkanangale and Shirol, 16,169 (*m.* 8,401; *f.* 7,768); Gadhingiaj, Ajra and Bhudargad, 5,041 (*m.* 2,585; *f.* 2,456); Bavada, Radhanagari, Shahuwadi and Panhala, 5,974 (*m.* 3,157; *f.* 2,821).

Urban tract : 25,694 (*m.* 13,317, *f.* 12,377) — Kolhapur city, 12,232 (*m.* 6,333; *f.* 5,899); Hatkanangale, Shahuwadi and Panhala, 9,808 (*m.* 5,117; *f.* 4,691); Gadhinglaj, Kagal and Ajra, 3,854 (*m.* 1,867; f. 1,787).

The majority of Muslims in the district, probably over 90 per cent, can be classified under the three family names Saiyads, Paṭhans and Shaikhs. There are very few families of Mughals. Any Muslim who is neither a Saiyad, nor a Paṭhāṇ nor a Mughal, can call himself a Shaikh and consequently Shaikhs are in preponderant majority. Apart from these classes or families, a small percentage of Muslims are called by their traditional occupational names like Atārs, Maṇyārs, Nālband etc. Enumeration of these sub-divisions among the Muslims was not effected by censuses later than 1901.

It would appear that some Muslim classes like Bāgvān, Bhaṅgī, Bohorā, Fakī, Julāhā, Kalāvant, Kasāi or Khāṭik, Mughal, Momīn, Paṭhāṇ, Paṭwekarī, Peṇḍārī, Sayad, Shaikh and unspecified — total : 38,553 were originally Hindus who on embracing Islam took the name Shaikh or Paṭhāṇ from the religious or military leader under whom they were converted. Many of them may have some strain of Arab, Abyssinian, Persian, Mughal or upper Indian blood. Some of these are still engaged in their old occupations, occupying different localities, and each leading its own community and social life, so much so that each can be identified as a separate social unit in the Muslim community as a whole. The educated among them are however able to mix freely with and marry in the families of the well-to-do classes.

Language.

Except that some men wear the beard and have the head clean shaved, the local converts differ little in look from local Hindus and, except Bhorās and Memans who speak Gujarāti and Cucchi at home, almost all Kolhapur Muslims among themselves speak Hindustani with a mixture of Marathi words and Marathi with others. The intonation and accent is peculiarly Kolhapurian. Among the classes of foreign origin, and to a less extent among the main body of Muslims are found men with sharp and marked features, fairer skins and lighter eyes; but

the women show fewer traces of non-local origin and in many cases can hardly be distinguished from Hindu women except that they do not mark their brows with vermilion or pass the end of the *sāri* back between the feet.

Houses.

The houses of Muslims do not differ much from those of other communities. In towns the well-to-do live in two storeyed houses with stone and cement walls and tiled roofs, and surrounded by a yard. The bulk of the Muslim houses, many of which have a front or back enclosure surrounded by a stone wall four or five feet high so as to provide privacy. Only orthodox Muslims whose women observe *purdāh* live in such houses. They are like tile roofed cottages built with rough stone and mud smeared with cowdung. The rich houses have generally four or five rooms, the front room being used as the *dālan* (men's room) with a few mats, carpets and cushions; the middle rooms are allotted as bedrooms, one of which is a women's sitting room, and store-rooms and the last room forms the kitchen with a good store of metal vessels. Village houses are built in much the same style as poor town houses, the front room being the biggest, is used as a stable for cattle. The village houses have no wells and the women fetch water from the village pond or river.

Food.

Town Muslims take two meals a day, breakfast about nine of millet or wheat bread, pulse, mutton and vegetables and supper at seven or eight in the evening of boiled rice and mutton and pulse if well-to-do, and bread and pulse with *cuṭṇī* (pounded chillies) if poor. Village Muslims and some rich town Muslims have three meals a day, villagers taking a cold breakfast about seven before going to their fields, a mid-day meal in the field, and a supper on reaching home in the evening. The rich add to the usual two meals a cup of tea or milk with bread in the morning immediately after rising. The staple food of villagers is millet bread, pulse and vegetables. Though all Muslims are non-vegetarians, few can afford meat even occasionally. A few rich villagers eat mutton daily and almost all manage to get mutton on *Bakar Id* festival. Except a few fresh settlers such as Bohorās and Memans, who may eat beef, the bulk of the local Musalmāns prefer mutton to beef and some communities will on no occasion touch beef. Buffalo beef is eschewed by all, and fowls, eggs, and fish are eaten without any objection when they can afford them. The flesh of only those animals which are butchered according to Islamic law is eaten. The trading classes as a rule use coffee and tea every day and husbandmen drink milk or tea with bread every morning. Tobacco smoking, chewing and snuffing is common among all classes.

Except members of the four leading classes and Bohorās and Memans who dress in loose trouser, a waistcoat, a shirt and a preformed turban peculiar to the community, almost all

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Kolhapur Muslim men dress in Hindu style. The transformation of fashions in dress from the Mughal and the Peśwaī patterns to the Western styles is almost complete in the younger generation. However, some of the conservative patterns still persist. The *śerwānī* and *pyjamā* (a pair of loose trousers) have an imprint of traditional wear. *Cuḍidār pyjamā* (a pair of tight trousers) and *Shalwār* (a loose trouser worn by Paṭhāṇs and Panjābis) are sometimes worn. At the time of prayer a Muslim may wear a *luṅgī* (loin-cloth) reaching down to the ankles and *pairhan* (a long shirt). Generally men wear indoors a headscarf, a waistcoat, and a waist or loin-cloth. Out of doors on all occasions the rich and on festive occasions the middle class and poor wear a loose Marāṭhā turban, a coat, trousers, and shoes. Most husbandmen while indoors dress in a napkin used as a loin-cloth and on going out draw a coarse country blanket over their shoulders. Indoors almost all the women wear the long Marāṭhā *sāri* and *colī*. The chief exceptione are Bohora women who dress in a petticoat, backless bodice and a headscarft, and Meman women who wear a shirt reaching to the knees and loose trousers. Townswomen wear *sāris* of different patterns and colours. Generally the rich and middle class Muslims keep the *zanānā* (seclusion system) and their women cover their heads with one end of the *sāri* and wear a *burqā* (veil) whenever they go out in public.

Ornaments.

Men do not wear any ornaments except marriage or engagemet rings of gold or silver often studded with green jade. Women begin married life with a number of gold or silver ornaments in proportion to the means of the husband or parents. The rich give to their daughters ornaments of gold and precious stones which consist of earrings, bangles, necklaces, bracelets and rings. The poor give silver ornaments which often consist of ankle ornaments such as *toḍās*, *paizeb* and *jhāṅj* and silver finger rings. Necklaces of gold such as *ṭhuśī* and *bormāḷ* speak of better status.

Muslims in villages are mostly land owners and husbandmen, and in towns many are craftsmen, artisans and traders and some are moneylenders. Village Muslims, especially husbandmen, are thrifty. Women of the families of husbandmen, weavers, other craftsmen and petty shopkeepers often earn almost as much as men, women of other families generally do not work for the purpose of earning. Except some families of Bohorā who are Shias of the Ismaili branch, all Kolhapur Muslims belong to the Sunni sect of the Hanafi school. They respect the same *kāzī*, pray in the same mosque and bury in the same graveyard. Some local communities e.g. Bāgwāns, Kasābs, Gavaṇḍis Piñjārīs have such Hindu leanings that they do not appear to associate much with other Muslims, are not particular about attending the mosque, eschew beef, keep Hindu feasts, and openly worship and offer vows to Hindu gods.

Rites.

Those who are not converts to Islam from original Hindu communities are particular about circumcising their boys and having their marriage and death rites conducted by their Kāzī. The *bismillā* (initiation) and the *akīka* (sacrifice) ceremonies are often neglected, owing partly to ignorance and partly to poverty. Though as a rule they do not attend the mosque for daily prayers, almost all are careful to be present at the special services on *Ramzām* and *Bakar Id* days and are careful to give alms and keep fasting during the whole month of *Ramzān*. The well-to-do make special offerings on the *Bakar Id* and pay the *kāzī* his dues. Their traditional religious officers are the *kāzī* (judge) who now acts chiefly as the marriage registrar, the *khātib* (preacher) the *mullā* or *maulānā* (priest), and the *mujāvar* (beedle), but these offices have now almost disappeared and the mosque services are led by any learned layman or *maulāvi* (law-doctor). The *bāṅgī* (crier) keeps the mosque clean, shouts the prayer-call five times a day and calls guests to marriage and other ceremonies. Except Bohorās all Muslims believe in pīrs (saints) to whom they pray for children or for health and offer sacrifices and gifts. Most craftsmen and husbandmen believe in Khaṇḍobā, Mhasobā, Mariāī and Saṭvāī, Hindu deities, to whom they make gifts and offer vows and whom they worship either privately or publicly. Pilgrimage to Macca is very rare but many persons visit the fairs of local saints.

Birth.

When a woman is in labour a midwife is sent for. The midwife delivers the woman, buries the naval-cord in a corner where the mother is afterwards bathed. If the child is a boy the midwife is paid higher than if it were a girl. Village Muslims, particularly husbandmen, worship on the fifth day the goddess Saṭvāī (Mother Sixth), who is supposed to register the destiny of the child on the sixth night after birth. A silver human tooth and a small silver sickle are the objects of worship. The tooth and the sickle are laid in a winnowing basket with a platter containing the heart and head of a goat and boiled rice, half a dry cocoakernel, two betel leaves and a betelnut and a marking-nut with a needle through it. Before these things the mother burns incense and bows. The ceremony is marked with a feast given to friends and relations. In some families mutton is served at this feast while in other families rice and split pulse sauce are served. After the birth of a child, the members of the family are ceremonially unclean for forty days during which the house images of saints are not worshipped.

The mother is given a ceremonial bath that day and is dressed in a new *sāḍi* dnd bodice. She is also made to put on new glass bangles. Friends and relations are treated to *pulāo* (rice and mutton cooked together) or *bāṅga* (rice and mutton cooked separately). In the evening the child is dressed in a cap and

Birth.

a frock, and its hands and feet are adorned with silver ornaments. The women gather near the cradle, put the child into it and sing songs as they rock the cradle. Before naming the child a piece of sandlewood is wrapped in a handkerchief, waved about the cradle, and is passed from one woman to another with the words, "Take this moon and give the sun". After repeating this several time, they lay the piece of wood in the cradle by the side of the child and name the child. The child's name is often chosen by the *kāzi* according to the position of its birth stars.

Circumcision.

Suntā (circumcision) is performed any time between the boy's third and twelfth year, the younger age being always preferred. The ceremony when elaborately performed may extend over three or four days. A booth with a *muhūrtmedh* (lucky post) is raised in front of the house and the boy to be circumcised is rubbed with turmeric paste for two days. A *biyapari* feast is held on the second day when women friends and relations are asked and five unwidowed women observing a fast are treated to a special dinner. On the third day the boy, after a ceremonial bath, dresses in a *jama* and a *sultānī sherā* (a veil made of a network of flowers) and goes in a procession on horseback to the mosque to say the prayers. On return home after dinner in the evening the boy is seated on a *chaurang* (stool) and the barber who is called *nabi* (Prophet) or *Khalifā* (ruler) calles out "*Din, Din*", and performs dextrously the circumcision To dull the pain sometimes *gāñjā* (hempseed) or some such drug is administered to the boy. Next day the barber washes the wound, turns up the prepuse (foreskin) with a *ghodī* (wooden instrument), applies oil to the wound and receives payment for his services from the father or relations of the boy. In poor families the ceremony is finished in a day. Instead of going to the mosque the boy's father brings the *kāzi* to his house, the barber circumcises the boy in the *kāzī's* presence, and the ceremony ends with a feast to friends and relations. The wound heals in ten to fifteen days. In honour of the recovery, a grand dinner is given to friends and relations There is however now a tendency to reduce all this elaborate ceremony to a considerable extent.

Marriage.

Among Kolhapur Muslims, offers of marriage come from the boy's parents. The boy's father first sees the girl and then the girl's father, the boy and if both the fathers are satisfied they consult the *kāzī* and *maulānā* over the birth stars of the boy and the girl. Finding the stars favourable they settle as to what sum the boy's father is to pay the girl's father as dowry for the girl. This sum is spent by the girl's father in the marriage, and the boy's father may spend very little. When both parties are rich enough to bear the costs, no sum is paid by the boy's father to the girl's father. Girls of poor and middle class families marry earlier than those from rich families who are often obliged to marry late on account of the want of

suitable match. Caste endogmy and observation of some Hindu marriage customs still prevail in rural areas among the uneducated. Otherwise, during the last thirty years the Muslim ceremonies have been much simplified.

The well-to-do families have a betrothal a year or six months before marriage. At the betrothal which takes place on a lucky day fixed by the *kāzī*, the bridegroom sends to the bride a present of a green *sārī* and a bodice and ornaments such as *sārī*, *colis* and *toḍās*, and in return receives from the bride's father a turban, a silver ring and a handkerchief.

When the marriage day draws near a booth is built in front of the house with the *muhūrtmeḍh* (lucky post) planted in the ground at a lucky moment. At night the *rajjaka*, in which songs in the praise of Allāh are sung to the music of drums, is performed by women of the family and in rich families by *Dombīṇs* (professional female singers and drummers). While the singing and music go on, *gulgulās* (small stuffed wheat cakes) and *rahims* (boiled rice flour balls made with milk, sugar and rosewater) are heaped in the name of the Allāh in two miniature pyramids, one for the bride and the other for the bridegroom. After offering red cotton cord, flowers and burnt incense to the heaps they are broken and the cakes and balls are handed to women. Next day, without his knowing it, a woman (with her husband alive)* marks the bridegroom's clothes with turmeric paste. This is called *corhalad* (secret turmeric) which is followed in evening by *sāvhalad* (public turmeric) ceremony in which the bride and bridegroom are rubbed with turmeric paste each separately and one after the other. This is followed by the *biyupari* feast at which incense is burnt in the name of Allāh and the bride and bridegroom bow to him. Friends and relations make presents of clothes to the parents of the bride and bridegroom. A feast of *pulāv* (rice cooked with mutton) is given to all male guests.

The ceremony of turmeric-rubbing is followed by that of *tel mendi* (oil and henna). The henna paste is brought from the bride's house by her sister who sitting behind a curtain rubs it on the bridegroom's palms and gets a money present. The henna is then applied to the palms and soles of the bride.†

About ten o'clock at night the bridegroom's friends and kinsmen seat him on horseback and escort him to the brides in a large procession. The bridegroom is dressed in a *jama* (long coat) and a *mandil* (turban) and over the dress a cloak of jasmine or other flowers covers the body from head to foot.

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*Like Hindus, the Muslims of Kolhapur, consider it inauspicious for widows to attend festal meetings.

†Where Hindu customs prevail it is customary at this time to tie round the neck of the bride a necklace of glass beads and adorn her hands and fingers with glass bangles and silver rings.

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Marriage.

The bridegroom and his party then arrive at the marriage porch or hall where they are received and seated by bride's kinsmen. The *kāzī* is then called to register the marriage. Two male *vakīls* (agents) and two witnesses, one for the bride and other for the bridegroom, stand before the *kāzī* and declare that they have agreed to this marriage and are ready to hear evidence. Before this, the witnesses should have directly approached the bride, and after repeating the name of the bridegroom and his age should have asked her whether she was willing to accept him in marriage or not. After hearing personally what the bride has to say they declare all that before the *kāzī* and the assembled guests. The *kāzī* thereupon makes the bridegroom and the bride's father sit facing each other, and making each hold the other's right hand, registers the marriage. After the marriage is registered and the sum stipulated for the girl's dowry is entered, the bridegroom says before all present that he has chosen her as his wife with the said sum of dowry. The bride's father declares that he gives his daughter to the bridegroom in marriage with all lawful ceremonies and with a certain sum as dowry. After this the bridegroom embraces his father-in-law and shakes hands and bows low to all present. Till two or three in the morning the bridegroom sits in the hall listening to singing and dancing girls. About dawn the bride's brother calls the bridegroom to the women's room. There the bride and bridegroom are made to sit on a cot side by side and allowed to see each other's face. As they sit the *kāzī* takes a little sugar into his hand, puts it on the bride's right shoulder and asks the bridegroom whether he thinks sugar sweet or his wife sweet; he answers the *Kurān* is the sweetest. The couple look at each other's face in a looking glass and each placing a hand on other's back they bow five times to the Almighty.* The bride goes into the house and the bridegroom stays in the booth till noon when the *varāt* (home-taking) procession starts. In this procession the bride sits in a carriage while the bridegroom rides a horse and escorts his bride to his house. On reaching the front gate he is met by his sisters and cousins who, before letting him in, make him promise to give his daughters in marriage to their sons.

Death and Funeral.

Musalmans bury their dead. When a Musalman dies some near relation with the Maulana goes to the market and buys a shroud seventy-five feet long for a man and ninety feet long for a woman and other things required for the funeral. These are rose-water, scents, sulphuret of antimony, aloe-lights, frankincense, and yellow earths; and in addition, frankincense oil and a flower-net when the dead is a woman. The dead is washed first with water boiled with *bor* and pomegranate leaves and then with soap-nut water, and laid on the back on a wooden board. The Maulana writes the creed, 'there is No God but

*If the couple is literate they together read the chapter of Peace from Kuran.

Allāh and Mohammad is the prophet of Allāh' in aloe-powder on the chest and forehead of the dead and puts pieces of camphor at all the joints of the dead body. The body is then wrapped in shroud and placed in *janāza* (bier) and carried to the graveyard. As the body is borne to the graveyard, the funeral party, all of whom are men, accompany the dead body calling *Kalma-i-Shahādat* as they walk and recite verses from the Kuran. Every now and then on the way the bearers are relieved and at the *idgā* (prayer place), they fall on their knees and pray to the Almighty. From this the corpse is carried to the grave and buried. As the grave is being filled all present go round the grave and throw in handfuls of earth. They close the grave and retiring forty paces fall on their knees and offer prayers to the Almighty for the dead. These prayers are called *khātmās*. All then return to the house of the deceased person, and offer *khātmās* on the spot where the dead body was washed and return to their homes. On the first day after the funeral the mourners are fed by their relations and friends on food dressed at their own houses On the morning of the third day a ceremony called *ziyārāt* is held in the house of mourning. The mourners go to the burial ground, white-wash the tomb and lay flowers, *subjā* (basil Ocymum pilosum) and sweatmeats beside it. Feasts in memory of the dead are held on the tenth and twentieth day and a grand feast on the fortieth day. On this day a garland of flowers is kept hanging from the centre of the roof on a large platter filled with a number of savoury dishes and the mourners burn incense before the platter and offer prayers for the soul of the dead They then partake of the funeral feast, sometimes smoke tobacco but do not receive *pān* and return to their houses. In the evening is held the *maulūd* (Koran reading) and the *maulānā* is paid for all his services in respect of the funeral. The only form of mourning laid down by Muhammadan law is in the case of the death of the head of the house, the strict seclusion of his widow. This lasts for four months and ten days.

PART IV—ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION.

CHAPTER 4—GENERAL ECONOMIC SURVEY.

CHAPTER 4.

General Economic Survey.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS PART OF THE GAZETTEER IS DEVOTED to describe in some detail all the major factors which are an integral part of the economic life of the district. However, before going into these details it will be helpful to the readers to have a vivid idea of the economic developments that have taken place in the district since the old Gazetteer was published (1886). It would serve as an introduction to the detailed study.

The economic life of a people depends on the resources with which they are endowed in the shape of land, man power, capital, and on a proper organization and utilization of those resources for productive purposes. The term land may be taken to include different types of natural wealth. Man power connotes the working population and their acquired skill. Capital is what has been saved and invested. Organization of production is the way in which the available resources are put to productive use. The part that all these factors play in building up the economic life of a community will naturally change with circumstances. Thus, productivity of land, as much as its acreage is of relevance in determining output; and that productivity can be increased by clearing the land, draining and irrigating it and fertilizing it.

From all these stand points Kolhapur district reveals some peculiar features of its economic organization which, interesting in themselves, help in understanding the life and problems of the people who inhabit it

POPULATION.

In 1881, the then Kolhapur State had a population of 8,00,189. The Kolhapur district of today had a population of 12,27,547 in 1951. The decrease in the area covered by these two censuses is of 21·4 square miles; the area in 1881 census was 2,816 square miles and was 2,794·6 in 1951. Therefore the percentage of increase in the population over the period

of the last 70 years (1881-1951) can be placed at 53·4. Of the total population of the district, 6,36,990 persons or 51·89 per cent. were self-supporting persons; and 3,80,878 or 31·02 per cent were earning dependents.

The process of urbanization is an index of social as well as of the economic changes. In the census of 1881 the then Kolhapur State had five towns; in 1951 they had gone up to 19. In 1951, the percentage of urban population to the total population of the district was 22·6. Historically speaking the rate of growth in the urban population was far higher than that in the rural population. Since 1881 the rural population increased by 29·4 per cent., whereas the urban population showed an increase of 320 per cent.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture was the main source of livelihood to 9,28,265 persons or about 75·46 per cent. of the total population in 1951. This includes self-supporting persons as also earning and non-earning dependents. Out of these as many as 6,63,073 worked on their own farms and 1,54,023 were tenant cultivators.

The total area of Kolhapur district was 17,39,619 acres in 1955-56 of which 9,69,058 acres were under the plough, 1,07,879 acres were barren and uncultivable waste land and 1,64,549 acres were culturable waste. Nearly 58 per cent. of the total cultivated area was in the eastern plains, mainly in the talukas of Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangale, Kagal, Karveer and Shirol. The proportion of cultivated area varied from taluka to taluka. The highest proportion (89·2) was in Kagal and the lowest (20·7) was in Bavada.

Of the cultivated land *jirayat* formed 93 per cent. of the total cultivated area in 1955-56; the rest of the area is *baggayat* land cropped with the help of irrigation. In the same year forest occupied, about 11 per cent. of the total geographical area or nearly 40 per cent. of the total uncultivated area of the district.

The main food crops of the district are rice, jowar, ragi, *vari*, *sava*, *bajari*, maize, and wheat. Among the cereals *tur*, horse-gram, gram, black-gram, *vatana* and *mug* are important. Ground-nut and nigar are important among oil-seeds; tobacco among drugs and narcotics; chillies among condiments and spices, cotton among the fibre crops and sugar-cane among sugar crops.

Since the last Gazetteer was published (1886) the crop-pattern has undergone various changes. The proportion of land under cereals, which was 70 in 1881-82, has gone down by about 20 per cent. Among the cereals the area under rice has increased by about 22 per cent; while that under jowar declined by about 20 per cent.

The area under oil seeds, edible and non-edible, shot up to 1,18,653 acres in 1955-56 from 34,175 in 1881-82. The most pronounced increase is in the area under groundnut. It increased from 27,543 acres in the year 1881-82 to 1,13,978 acres in 1955-56. In 1881-82, the acreage under tobacco was 10,193. It shot up to 36,100 in 1955-56. The percentage of gross irrigated area to total cultivated area came to 7·2 in 1955-56. Of the 66,779 irrigated acres of land, 1,593 acres were irrigated more than once. Sugarcane occupied 72 per cent. of the total irrigated area, food crops occupied 20 per cent., and the rest was occupied by non-food crops.

As compared with the other districts of the Deccan, Kolhapur, with the moderate rainfall that it enjoys and with its rich land especially in the valleys of *Dudhaganga. Krishna, Varna* and *Panchaganga,* is more or less free from famine. No famine of a serious nature is reported to have occurred in this area during the present century.

INDUSTRIES.

According to 1951 census, 79,176 persons (of whom 7,792 were women) were engaged in various industries. Historically speaking industries began to develop in the old Kolhapur State round about 1925. Cotton textile, sugar, gur, manufacture of small mechanical devices and production of vegetable oil are the important among them. Among village industries, handloom-weaving, brick-making. tile-making and pottery, leather-working and tanning are important.

Due to increase in irrigation facilities and supply of electricity, there seems to be sufficient justification for the belief that the sugar industry would become the most important industry in the district in days to come. Another important prospective industry is the manufacture of aluminium, when electricity from the Koyna Hydel Project, becomes available. The first sugar factory began to operate in 1932. It produced 14,281 tons of sugar in 1956-57 and employed, in 1957, 365 persons on a permanent basis and 403 on a seasonal basis.

Co-operative management of industries is a new feature of industrial management and has been adopted in the manufacture of sugar and in various village industries such as brick and tile-making, leather goods industry and tanning industry. In sugar industry arrangements for four co-operative sugar factories have reached the final stage (1956-57) and may start work in the near future.

In addition to the cotton textile mills at Kolhapur. there are at present (1957-58) about 150 power-loom factories with about 1,590 power-looms ; they employ about 2,572 persons. It was in 1928 that the first power-loom factory was started.

There were, in 1953-54, ten oil mills in the district. They employed 300 persons in all. The first mill was started in 1912 ; the next three during the thirties and the remaining six during the forties.

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TRADE.

According to the census of 1951 various types of trade—wholesale, retail, money-lending, banking and other financial business, real estate, and insurance—provided the principal means of livelihood to 53,858 persons or about 4·4 per cent. of the population of the district. It also provided a subsidiary means of livelihood to 9,894 or about 0·8 per cent. of the total population. Excluding dependents, self-supporting persons engaged in trade were 14,417 of whom 10,171 or 70·5 per cent. belonged to urban areas. A very large proportion (80·4) of self-supporting persons engaged in trade and commerce, were engaged in retail trade.

In the 19th century, Kolhapur city was an important trade centre, through which passed various articles of day to day necessity. According to the old Gazetteer the chief articles of export from the town were grains, earthenware, cattle and chillies; of imports salt, coconuts, dates, piece-goods, iron and sugar.

At present (1957-58) the chief articles of import are, building material, iron, brass, tin, stainless-steel, coal, grains, grocery, cloth and medicines. Among the exports gur, tobacco, cotton, cotton-seeds, ground-nuts, sweet-oil, oil-cakes, bajri and jowar are important.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act (1939) was made applicable to Kolhapur State in 1945. In accordance with the provisions of the Act, the Kolhapur market was regulated from 15th October 1945. A full fledged market department came into existence from 1st June 1946. At present (1956-57) in addition to Kolhapur, the market at Gadhinglaj is also regulated. The commodities regulated at Kolhapur are *gur* and ground-nuts: and at Gadhinglaj *gur*, ground-nuts and chillies.

There were in 1956-57, 1,508 dealers registered under the Sales Tax Act (1946) and their total turnover was to the tune of Rs. 30·28 crores. Within the district, Kolhapur city had the largest number of dealers (714) with a total turnover of about Rs. 17·16 crores.

FINANCE.

Since the old Gazetteer was published considerable changes have taken place in the sphere of finance both in rural and in urban areas. The most remarkable feature of these developments is active Government participation in financial activity and regulation by Government of financial institutions and their operations.

The money lender as an institution of credit is very old in India and continues to play even today an important role in the rural finance of the district. It is believed that they probably supply about 80 per cent of the total credit requirements of the rural area of the district. They may not however continue to hold the same predominent position in future in view of Governmental regulation of their activities

and in view of competition from the growing number of institutional agencies that are being set up for the supply of finance to the cultivator.

Another important landmark in rural finance is the introduction of Governmental agencies to advance seasonal loans. Some kind of a gap in the structure of rural credit was created as a result of the enforcement of the Bombay Agricultural Debt Relief Act, 1939, which made alienation of land difficult and therefore made moneylenders extremely cautious in advancing loans. To meet to some extent the lacuna thus caused the Government of Bombay initiated a system of crop or seasonal finance; the principal agencies of the system are: co-operative societies; Revenue department; grain depots and persons authorised under section 54 of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1947. Through these agencies loans are advanced. against the security of crops grown by them, to persons who are parties to the proceedings under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act. The Bombay State Co-operative Bank has also followed a liberal policy of crop finance, both in favour of money crops and foodgrains.

Another important landmark in rural finance is the introduction of co-operative societies and banks, which endeavour not only to meet the short and long term credit requirements of the cultivator but also to fetch good prices for their products. Thus they attack the problem of rural finance from two directions. On the one side they try to ensure that the cultivator gets advances at reasonable rates and on reasonable conditions. On the other side they try to increase his receipts by helping him to get better prices for his products. The various co-operative societies and banks working in the district are. (1) agricultural co-operative credit societies; (2) multipurpose societies; (3) non-agricultural credit societies and (4) district central co-operative banks.

Among the agencies that mop up small savings, postal savings banks are the most important in view of their suitability to tap rural areas, their prestige and the confidence of the public enjoyed by them. The National Saving Scheme is another important scheme mopping up small savings. Its beginning could be traced to the First World War when Government issued postal cash certificates

Joint stock banks do banking business in urban areas. Three such banks have their registered offices in the district. They confine their sphere of activity to urban areas and generally advance short term loans. The formation of the State Bank of India is another landmark in modern banking in India. The State Bank is trying to tap rural areas and to widen its sphere of activities. Recently Government has also entered upon the scene and has advanced loans and assistance to village, cottage and other industries in quite a number of ways.

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TRANSPORT.

During the last 70 years, vast improvements in the means of transport and communications have taken place. The old Gazetteer mentions that new roads of 300 miles were made during 1845 and 1854. It goes on "At present (1883), besides several small roads, Kolhapur has four main lines of communication, one the Poona-Belgaum road running north and south, and three the Kolhapur-Amba pass, the Kolhapur-Phonda pass and the Sankeshwar-Parpoli pass Roads, running west towards the coast." At present (1957-58) excluding village roads Kolhapur has a total of 998 road mileage. Besides increase in the total number of miles there is a striking change in the surface of roads. All the national highways and state highways have at least black top surface and are motorable throughout the year. The condition of major district roads has also improved considerably.

It was on April 21, 1891, that a meter guage railway line between Miraj and Kolhapur was opened for traffic. This line, about 30 miles in the district, serves Kolhapur district. Sugar and *gur* are transported by the railway. Moreover, during the months of monsoon when country craft cannot ply the railhead at Kolhapur serves admirably for passenger as well as for goods traffic between Ratnagiri and Bombay.

In the matter of postal communications, the district is fairly well served. From 17 post offices (two chief disbursing offices, one town sub-office and 14 sub-offices) in 1886 the number has now gone up to 148 of which one is head office, 15 sub-offices and 132 branch offices. At present there are 14 telegraph offices. In addition to this, there are telephone exchanges, with trunkline alignment, at Kolhapur, Jaisingpur and Ichalkaranji.

A new landmark in passenger transport is the advent of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation, set up by Government in pursuance of their general policy of nationalising road transport. The Kolhapur division of the Corporation covers the entire district and exclusively undertakes passenger transport.

CHAPTER 5—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

IN THE YEAR 1951, NEARLY 76 PER CENT. OF THE TOTAL POPULATION of the Kolhapur district was engaged in agriculture. A comparison of the decennial census figures over the past seventy years indicates the trends underlying the variations in agricultural population from decade to decade. However, such a course is not possible for two reasons. Firstly, the decennial census figures, owing to changes in the methods of enumeration and classification, do not provide a consistent record, from decade to decade, of the changes in the structure of population actually engaged in agriculture. Secondly, the merger of the former Kolhapur State in 1949 renders the figures of 1951 census of Kolhapur district difficult of comparison with the earlier figures. Nevertheless, these changes can be broadly gauged from the figures of population given in the census reports under the head "Rural", which includes not only persons engaged in agriculture and allied occupations but also those engaged in non-agricultural occupations. These figures indicate that, during the past seven decades, the increase in rural population has not kept pace with that in urban population. The following table brings out this point:—

TABLE No. 1.

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (1881-1951).

Year.	Total Population	Rural		Urban	
		Number.	Per cent. of total population.	Number	Per cent. of total population.
1881 ..	8,00,180	7,34,166	91·8	66,023	8·2
1891 ..	9,13,131	8,37,042	91·7	76,089	8·3
1901 ..	9,10,011	8,00,964	88·0	1,09,047	12·0
1911 ..	8,33,441	7,43,960	89·3	89,481	10·7
1921 ..	8,33,726	7,29,014	87·4	1,04,712	12·6
1931 ..	9,57,137	8,21,574	85·8	1,35,563	14·2
1941 ..	10,92,046	9,20,111	84·3	1,71,935	15·7
1951 ..	12,27,547	9,50,090	77·4	2,77,457	22·6

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AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

During the period 1881-1941, the total population increased from 8,00,189 to 10,92,046, an addition of 2,91,857 persons during sixty years. The increase in the decade 1941-51 is more pronounced. In 1951 the total population increased by 1,35,501. Broadly speaking the total increase in population during the period 1881-1951 is of the order of 53·4 per cent.

As against this increase, the rural population increased from 7,34,166 to 9,50,090, an increase of 29·4 per cent. over the population of 1881. Urban population, on the other hand, increased by as much as 320 per cent. This shows that increase in the rural population has not kept pace with that in the urban population. Actually, the proportion of the rural population to the total has been on the decline which became very evident in the last decade. It has dwindled from 91·8 per cent. in 1881 to 84·3 in 1941 and to 77·4 per cent. in 1951. In technical terms, the urban population has shown an accelerating rate of increase at each of the past censuses, while the rural population has shown a de-celerating rate of increase. The following table gives the population of towns in the district:—

TABLE No. 2.

URBAN POPULATION IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1951.

Town.	Taluka or Peta.	Population in 1881.	Population in 1941.	Population in 1951.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1941 over 1881 population.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1951 over 1881 population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ajra ..	Ajra ..	N.A.	4,258	5,353	..	..
Gadhinglaj ..	Gadhinglaj ..	5,002	9,017	8,546	+80·3	+70·0
Ichalkaranji.	Hatkanangale .	9,107	18,573	27,423	+103·9	+201·1
Hupari ..	Hatkanangale .	N.A.	4,799	7,030	.	..
Vadgaon ..	Hatkanangale .	N.A.	6,003	6,173	..	..
Pattankodoli.	Hatkanangale	N.A.	4,850	5,903	..	..
Kumbhoj ...	Hatkanangale	N.A.	N.A.	5,068	..	..
Rukadi ..	Hatkanangale	N.A.	4,319	5,375	..	..
Alte Kasba ..	Hatkanangale	N.A.	N.A.	5,214	..	..
Kagal ..	Kagal ..	6,371	8,031	9,821	+26·1	+54·2

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Town.	Taluka or Peta.	Population in 1881.	Population in 1941.	Population in 1951.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1941 over 1881 population.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1951 over 1881 population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Murgud ..	Kagal ..	N.A.	4,524	5,637	.	..
Kapashi ..	Kagal ..	N.A.	N.A.	3,502	..	..
Kolhapur .	Karvir ..	38,599	93,032	1,36,835	+141·0	+25·5
Koddi (Kasaba)	Panhala ..	N.A.	6,749	7,597	..	..
Malkapur ..	Shahuwadi ..	N.A.	2,840	3,299	..	..
Shirol ..	Shirol ..	6,944	9,639	10,131	+38·8	+45·9
Kurandwad ..	Shirol ..	7,138	9,026	9,744	+26·4	+36·5
Jaisingpur ..	Shirol ..	N.A.	3,884	8,048	..	..
Nandani .	Shirol ..	N.A.	N.A.	5,699	.	..

In 1951 there were 19 towns in the district, seven being in the taluka of Hatkanangle alone. There were only six towns in 1881 in the area which now constitutes Kolhapur district. The population of Kolhapur city increased by 141 per cent. during 1881-1941 and by 47 per cent. in the decade 1941-51 alone. This was mainly due to the increased tempo of industrialisation which could be witnessed in the former Kolhapur State in general and in Kolhapur town (the then state capital and present district headquarters) in particular. Similarly, the population of Ichalkaranji (headquarters of Hatkanangle taluka) increased by 104 per cent. during 1881-1941 while in the decade 1941-51 alone, the increase was about 49 per cent. Ichalkaranji is an important centre of power-loom weaving industry which is advancing at a rapid pace in the district.

Out of the 19 towns, ten (viz., Ajra, Hupari, Pattankodoli, Kumbhoj, Rukadi, Murgud, Kapashi, Malakapur, Jaisingpur and Nandani) had sprung up only after 1941. Among these Hupari (in Hatkanangle taluka) is an important village industries centre and is famous for silver ware.

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AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

The following table shows talukawise distribution of urban and rural population of the district: —

TABLE No. 3.

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (TALUKAWISE), 1951.

Taluka.	Total	Rural.	Urban.	Percentage of Rural to total population.
Ajra ..	59,025	53,672	5,353	90·9
Bavada ..	52,922	52,922	....	100
Bhudargad ..	65,920	65,920	....	100
Gadhinglaj ..	1,11,397	1,02,851	8,546	92·3
Hatkanangale ..	1,69,700	1,06,515	63,185	62·8
Kagal ..	1,10,734	91,714	19,020	81·8
Karvir ..	2,66,299	1,29,464	1,36,835	48·6
Panhala ..	96,379	88,782	7,597	91·2
Radhanagari .	87,205	87,205	....	100
Shahuwadi .	86,765	83,466	3,299	96·2
Shirol ..	1,21,192	87,570	33,622	72·3
Total ..	12,27,547	9,50,090	2,77,457	77·4

The talukas of Bavda, Bhudargad and Radhanagari are purely rural. In the Karvir and Hatkanangle talukas we find that the proportion of the urban population to the total is 51·4 and 37·2 per cent. respectively. These two talukas are noted for their commercial and industrial activities. The rest of the talukas are predominantly rural.

In the 1951 census the number of persons engaged in agriculture and in various allied occupations was recorded. This is shown in the following tables: —

TABLE No. 4.

POPULATION ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1951.

	Self-supporting Persons.		Earning Dependents.		Non-earning Dependents.		Persons following other professions as their main occupation but deriving secondary income from Agriculture.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	1,44,503	21,207	29,724	93,605	1,59,218	2,14,916	39,546	85,865
2. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	35,716	2,289	7,809	25,148	35,956	47,105	30,368	23,676
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependents.	20,424	5,738	3,064	9,090	19,107	27,213	19,030	23,106
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents.	4,694	2,241	467	553	6,894	11,684	6,702	703
Total—All Classes ..	2,05,337	31,475	41,064	1,28,296	2,21,175	3,00,918	95,655	1,33,350

TABLE No. 5.

POPULATION ENGAGED IN ALLIED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1951.

	Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Stock raising	72	8	224	1	1,774	101	2,070	110
2. Rearing of small animals and insects ..	..	1	4	..	1	2	5	3
3. Forestry and collection of products not elsewhere specified.	1	1	103	2	142	1	246	4
4. Plantation Industries	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
Total ..	73	10	331	3	1,917	105	2,321	118

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood to 9,28,265 persons including self-supporting persons, both earning and non-earning, besides providing subsidiary occupation to a fairly large number of persons. In table Nos. 4 and 5 above are included persons engaged in agricultural cultivation; land owners cultivating and non-cultivating; farm labourers; labourers working in forests; and persons engaged in rearing, breeding and dealing in livestock. The majority of the workers on the land are the cultivating owners, numbering 6,63,073 who work on their own farms. Tenant cultivators who numbered 1,54,023 come next. Agricultural labourers, who work on other people's farms for wages in cash or kind, numbered 84,636. The non-cultivating owners of land, numbering 26,553, usually give out their lands to tenant cultivators on rent. The number of persons engaged in occupations allied to agriculture was 2,539. Of these, 250 were forest labourers who collect wood fuel and burn firewood for charcoal; 2,180 were engaged in breeding and rearing of livestock. Persons engaged in live-stock business usually keep good quality cattle, buffaloes, and pack animals. They also keep sheep, goats and poultry.

RAINFALL.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE GIVES THE NUMBER OF RAINY DAYS and average rainfall recorded at a few raingauge stations in Kolhapur district.

TABLE No. 6.

KOLHAPUR RAINFALL RETURNS.

(Average of 13 years from 1939-40 to 1951-52).

Stations.	Approximate distance from the Sahyadries. (Miles.)	Pre-monsoon. 1st April–31st May		Monsoon. 1st June–30th September.		Post-monsoon. 1st October–30th November.		Winter. 1st December–31st March.		Total.	
		No. of rainy days.	Rainfall.	No. of rainy days.	Rainfall.	No. of rainy days.	Rainfall.	No. of rainy days.	Rainfall.	No. of rainy days.	Rainfall.
1. Gagan Bavada ..	0	6	6·8	106	242·9	12	14·8	1	1·0	125	264·6
2. Radhanagari ..	6	6	4·7	88	137·7	9	6·6	1	1·0	104	150·0
3. Gargoti	26	6	4·8	69	55·5	10	7·5	1	1·0	86	68·8
4. Kolhapur	40	7	4·6	52	32·5	9	7·4	1	1·8	69	46·3
5. Kapshi	45	5	4·9	43	29·4	7	5·8	1	1·0	56	41·1
6. Gadhinglaj	34	8	5·8	51	24·9	8	7·1	1	1·0	68	39·7
7. Vadgaon	50	7	5·9	42	23·4	8	5·6	1	1·3	58	36·4
8. Shirol	66	6	3·8	32	14·9	7	6·6	1	2·7	46	28·0
9. Kurundwad* ..	....	4	2·5	23	10·8	6	3·6	½	0·5	33·5	17·4

* From 1936–37 to 1948–49

Data and number of stations are not sufficient to bring out that rainfall decreases from South to North on the Sahyadries and that altitudes also make difference in the rainfall received at different places. Region with higher altitude in the north gets more rain than that with similar altitude in the south. In spite of insufficient data, however, the table vividly brings out the marked variation in rainfall from West to East. It may be stated broadly that the range between the maximum and the minimum is large and vagaries of rainfall are great. It is indeed rightly said that in Kolhapur district rainfall changes from mile to mile.

Due to variation in rainfall from year to year (and from place to place) it is difficult to divide the district into distinct rainfall zones. On the basis of rainfall returns for a series of years, however, three broad divisions may be defined; (i) the western zone, receiving heavy and assured rainfall and comprising the talukas of Shahuwadi, Panhala (part), Radhanagari, Bhudargad, Ajra and Bavda; (ii) the central zone, receiving moderate but fairly regular rainfall and comprising Panhala (part), Karvir (part), Kagal (part), and Gadhinglaj talukas; and (iii) the eastern zone, receiving irregular and uncertain rainfall and comprising the talukas of Hatkanangle, Shirol, Karvir (part) and Kagal (part).

It should be clear from the table that most of annual rainfall (*kharif* rains. so to say) of the district takes place between June and November. During June-September, the district receives highest rainfall from the south-west monsoon. By the end of September, the south-west monsoon loses its strength and gives way to the north-east monsoon, which provides *rabi* rain to the eastern part of the district. The middle part of the district gets some rain from the north-east monsoon which is helpful for *rabi* sowing and for sugarcane. The eastern part has to depend on the rains of this monsoon for the maturing of jowar and wheat.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

ALL THE CULTIVABLE LAND IN THE DISTRICT falls under one of the three categories, namely *jirayat* (dry crop land), *bagayat* (irrigated land) and rice lands. Dry crop lands on account of their dependence on the monsoon, are further divided into *kharif* (early monsoon) and *rabi* (late monsoon) lands. Kharif crops are brought to maturity by the rains of south-west monsoon whereas *rabi* crops depend on north-east monsoon, dew and irrigation.

Kharif season, which commences in June and terminates in September. draws its rainfall mainly from the south-west monsoon and from the ante-monsoon showers in May. An average rainfall of 69" received during this season is on the whole fairly distributed. The main *kharif* crops of the district are :—paddy, *kharif* jowar, bajri, ragi, Italian millets, kodra, vari, sava, maize, *turi*, *kulith*, *udid*, *chavali*, groundnut, niger,

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AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

sugarcane, chillies, brinjals, tomatoes, bhendi, cucurbits and leafy vegetables. Sowing and reaping of these crops roughly coincides with the commencement and termination of the monsoon. With the exception of sugarcane, sowing is generally done between mid June and mid July and harvesting between the middle of September and the end of November. Kharif Jowar, however, is harvested between the middle of December and the middle of January. Crops like chillies, *turi* and cotton are harvested in September, December, January and February respectively.

In the heavy rainfall zone paddy, ragi, Italian millet, kodra, vari, sava and rala are the main crops grown. In the central and eastern zone, *kharif* jowar, *turi*, groundnut, cotton, tobacco, chillies and all pulses are grown. Sugarcane, which is the main cash crop of the district, is grown all along the river valleys. Planting of tobacco is generally done in August and it is harvested in January. Planting of sugarcane commences from November onwards and is over by the end of January. Cultivators take *ratoon* crop of sugarcane at least for four years. There is also the practice of planting of cane by the *rajooing* method, especially in the month of August. This is a 16 month crop. Kharif jowar and groundnut grown in central and eastern zone are dibbled by marking the lands by a marker. Cotton crop is grown as a miscellaneous crop generally along with chillies. Sowing is over by the end of July.

Rabi crops such as *shalu* jowar, gram and wheat are grown in parts of central zone and eastern zone, along the river-banks submerged during floods. The moisture retained by the soil from monsoon showers, rains received from north-east monsoon and dew are sufficient for these crops. In the western zone, after the harvest of paddy, crops such as *watana* (field peas), *val* and gram are taken in the lands retaining sufficient moisture. Advantage of north-east monsoon rainfall is also taken. Wherever watering facilities are available, wheat, onions, garlic and vegetables such as carrots, radish, cabbage, brinjals and tomatoes are the other crops grown after the harvesting of paddy.

SOILS.

ALMOST THE WHOLE OF THE WESTERN HALF OF THE DISTRICT is covered by the basaltic Sahyadri ranges. The land gradually slopes towards the east into the Deccan plateau which is gently undulating with ridges and valleys. Due to these topographical features, the soils in the district vary from tract to tract, so much so that even in a single village, as between field and field, a variety of soils from rich-loam to poor thin *murmad* is met with.

The soils are derived mainly from trap, except in the forest covered mountainous area in the west where they are of lateritic origin. The laterite overlies the trap rock. Consequently, in the western portion the hill tops and ridges are

covered with lateritic soils; while in the valleys the soils are of mixed character, varying in colour from brownish to reddish. In the eastern portion, due to its undulating nature, deeper soils are formed in the low-lying parts, while the ridges are covered by shallow soils, more or less partially eroded.

Physiographically, Kolhapur district can be divided into three broad soil zones: (a) the western part, with heavy rainfall (is mountainous and woody and is covered with lateritic soils); (b) the fertile central part, with brownish well-drained soils of neutral reaction; and (c) the dry eastern zone, with precarious rainfall and covered with medium black soil of varying depth. The following table shows the chemical and physical characteristics:—

TABLE No. 7.

Composition of Soils in Kolhapur District.

Particulars.	Laterite.	Brown.	Medium and deep black.
Local names.	Tambad.	Halki kali	Madhyam or Bhari kali
Colour	Red to brownish red.	Reddish brown	Gray to deep black.
Depth . ..	3′	3′–5′	5′–8′
Drainage	Good.	Excellent.	Good.
Topography . ..	Undulating.	Undulating.	More or less flat.
Erosion .. .	Nil.	Slightly	Nil.
Sand. (per cent.) ..	35–40	45–50	10–15
Silt (per cent.) ..	25–30	20–25	30–40
Clay (per cent.) ..	25–35	20–25	35–50
Lime (CaCo3) (per cent.) ..	Nil.	1–3	1–5
pH	4·50 – 6·50	6·50 – 7·50	7·50 – 8·50
Nitrogen (per cent.) .. Phosphoric acid (mg. per cent.) (P205) available.	0·08 – 0·10 to 0·00 – 5·00	0·05 – 0·08 to 10·00 – 15·00	0·06 – 0·08 to. 15·00 – 20·00
Potash (mg. per cent). (K20) available.	15·00 – 20·00	20·00 – 25·00	20·00 – 25·00

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Lateritic Soils.

Lateritic soils (*tambad mati*) occur mainly in the western hilly tracts of heavy rainfall, on the hill tops and in the ridges which are not covered by forest. They are found in the western parts of Karvir, Bhudhargad and Ajra and the whole of Shahuwadi, Panhala, Radhanagari and Bavada talukas. They are red to brownish-red in colour, mostly eroded and shallow with good drainage. The soils are acidic with low phosphoric contents and liming has been found to be beneficial. They are not retentive of moisture and hill millets are predominantly taken from them. When terraced, applications of nitrogen and phosphorus are found quite useful and in such cases paddy crop can also be taken from the soil.

Under forests, which abound in valuable trees like teak, *undi, jambul* etc., the soils are fertile and rich in humus.

In the valleys, lateritic soils are mixed with trap soils. They vary in colour from brown to black, are fairly deep retentive of moisture. Paddy is the main crop of this area and in the *rabi* season *val* is also grown wherever possible. Due to the deforestation of the forests, the soils are well supplied with nitrogen and organic matter but are very poor in phosphorus and potash. The paddy crop, therefore, responds well to the application of phosphorus and potash.

Brown Soils.

Brown soils (*halki kali mati*) are found in the talukas of Hatkanangle, Karvir and Radhanagari and parts of the Bhudhargad and Ajra talukas in the transition tract. They are mainly derived from trap and are dark brown in colour, with a reddish tinge. They are rich and fertile with excellent granular structure, almost neutral in reaction and well supplied with calcium. These soils respond well to the application of fertilizers. As this tract receives a guaranteed rainfall of 40"-50", conditions in the tract are optimum for most of the crops. Rice, jowar, and groundnut are grown on these soils in kharif season. Sugarcane and vegetables are taken wherever irrigation facilities are available. Jaggery produced from sugarcane grown in these soils, is well-known throughout India.

Medium and Deep Black Soils.

Medium and Deep Black Soils (*madhyam* or *bhari kali mati*) are found in the talukas of Shirol, Hatkanangle, Karvir, Kagal and Gadhinglaj. They are also derived from trap and vary

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Medium and Deep Black Soils.

in depth considerably, from place to place. In the river valleys, the soils are deep. Medium deep soils are grey in colour with good granular structure and drainage. The deeper soils are more black in colour and more clayey. Lime nodules occur in plenty and pH value is between 7·5 and 8·0. The soils are quite fertile and good crops of *kharif* jowar and groundnut are obtained They are fairly rich in phosphorus contents and the crops respond well to the application of nitrogen to these soils. As drainage is good, the soils are amenable to irrigation and consequently paddy, sugarcane and vegetables can be successfully taken from them.

LAND UTILISATION.

BEFORE THE MERGER OF PRINCELY STATES (i.e. before 1949), the total area of Kolhapur State, including that of *jahagirs*, was 20,67,294* acres. Immediately after the constitution of Kolhapur district in 1949-50, which then did not include the talukas of Katkol and Raibag of the former State, the total area of the district was reported to be 17,00,700 acres. Thanks to the improvement in reporting and to the reorganisation of the agencies collecting agricultural statistics in the merged and integrated areas, in 1955-56 the total geographical area of the district was reported to be 17,39,619† acres.

A major portion of the district forms an irregular part of the South Deccan plateau. The western and central zones, being very proximate to the Sahyadri ranges, are naturally more hilly than the eastern zone. The following table shows the distribution of cultivated and uncultivated areas in Kolhapur district in 1955-56:—

* P. C. Patil, Regional Survey of Economic Resources, India, Kolhapur 1950.

† Chandgad Taluka Excluded. *See* foot note at the end of the Chapter.

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TABLE No. 8.

STATEMENT SHOWING CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED AREAS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT DURING THE YEAR 1955-56.

Talukas.	Number of Villages.	Total Geographical-areas.	Cultivated Area. (In acres.)				
			Gross cropped area.	Area cropped more than once.	Net area sown.	Current fallows.	Total cultivated area.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ajra ..	84	1,32,251	74,132	316	73,816	5,410	79,226
Bavada ..	76	1,30,701	27,135	69	27,066	5	27,071
Bhudargad ..	97	1,59,246	59,831	666	59,165	3,153	62,318
Gadhinglaj ..	90	1,22,258	1,02,723	1,384	1,01,339	7,299	1,08,638
Hatkanangale ..	53	1,50,578	1,19,161	2,176	1,16,985	268	1,17,253
Kagal ..	80	1,35,280	1,21,537	930	1,20,607	Nil.	1,20,607
Karvir ..	107	1,65,835	1,10,757	2,654	1,08,103	5,320	1,13,423
Panhala ..	102	1,40,527	77,388	2,091	75,297	6,561	81,858
Radhanagari ..	101	2,20,485	68,764	3,411	65,353	18,856	84,209
Shahuwadi ..	131	2,57,065	69,408	4,924	64,484	3,475	67,959
Shirol ..	47	1,25,393	1,06,838	440	1,06,398	98	1,06,496
Total for the District.	968	17,39,619	9,37,674	19,061	9,18,613	50,445	9,69,058

Talukas.	Number of Villages.	Total Geographical areas.	Un-cultivated Area. (In acres.)							
			Forests.	Barren and unculturable area.	Land put to non-agricultural uses.	Culturable waste	Permanent pastures and other grazing areas.	Land under miscellaneous trees, crops and groves.	Other fallows.	Total un-cultivated area.
1	2	3	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Ajara ..	84	1,32,251	36,267	5,639	3,166	323	7,610	Nil.	Nil.	53,025
Bavada ..	76	1,30,701	30,584	6,632	2,550	62,810	764	290	Nil.	1,03,630
Bhudargad ..	97	1,59,246	50,768	6,518	6,601	12,488	7,572	Nil.	3,781	96,928
Gadhinglaj ..	90	1,22,258	4,309	1,654	4,171	222	2,746	132	86	13,620
Hatkanangale ..	53	1,50,578	2,340	8,255	2,904	Nil.	19,376	443	7	33,325
Kagal ..	80	1,35,280	3,651	117	7,936	Nil.	2,703	266	Nil.	14,673
Karvir ..	107	1,65,835	10,772	7,282	1,725	1,714	30,616	103	Nil.	52,412
Panhala ..	102	1,40,527	29,069	4,613	7,075	8,861	3,940	Nil.	5,111	58,669
Radhanagari ..	101	2,20,485	70,734	27,379	1,534	19,226	1,969	14,678	756	1,36,276
Shahuwadi ..	131	2,57,065	60,799	31,371	6,616	54,124	29,380	830	5,986	1,89,106
Shirol ..	47	1,25,393	2,228	8,419	697	4,781	2,725	Nil.	47	18,897
Total for the District.	968	17,39,619	3,10,521	1,07,879	45,195	1,64,540	1,09,601	17,042	15,774	7,70,561

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Cultivated Area.

The total cultivated area in the district formed about 56 per cent. of the total geographical area. This, of course, included cropped areas which were kept fallow during the current year and excluded areas which were cultivated more than once during an agricultural year. The eastern plains, mainly the talukas of Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangale, Kagal, Karvir and Shirol, occupied nearly 58 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Among the hilly talukas of the west, Bavada taluka recorded the lowest area under cultivation (i.e. about three per cent. of the cultivated area) because of its proximity to the Sahyadris.

It is further interesting to note that the percentage of cultivated area to total area varied significantly from taluka to taluka. In Kagal taluka it was as high as 89·2 while in the Bavada mahal it stood only at 20·7. This shows that the talukas in the eastern part possess the highest acreage under cultivation *vis-a-vis* the total geographical area and secondly it also bears out that within each of these talukas the proportion of total cultivated area to the total geographical area is much larger than in the talukas of the hilly west.

Jirayat and Bagayat.

The cultivated area in Kolhapur district falls under two major heads namely, *jirayat* (dry land) and *bagayat* (irrigated land). The *jirayat* land, which formed 93 per cent. of total cultivated area in 1955-56, is cropped only with the help of rain water. while the *bagayat* land (7 per cent.) is cropped with the help of irrigation, mainly lift irrigation.

Forest Area.

Forests in Kolhapur district occupied in 1955-56 an area of 3,10,521 acres which is about 11 per cent. of the total geographical area and nearly 40 per cent. of the total uncultivated area of the district. As it should be, the talukas on the west have considerable area under forests. The talukas of Bhudargad, Radhanagari and Shahuwadi taken together, account for about 61 per cent. of the total area under forests in the district. In contrast to this, however, are the eastern talukas of Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangale, Kagal and Shirol, possessing only four per cent. of the total area under forests.

The following table shows talukawise distribution of forests under the charge of the Forest Department in 1955-56: —

TABLE No. 9.

AREA IN CHARGE OF FOREST DEPARTMENT IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, 1955-56.

Range.	Talukas included in the range.	Area in acres under forests.		
		Reserved.	Protected.	Total.
1. Karvir ..	Karvir, Radhanagari (Pt.), Hatkanangale, Kagal (Pt.). ..	13,678	9,777	23,455
2. Panhala ..	Panhala, Bavda (Pt.), Shahuwadi (Pt.). ..	49,013	19,846	68,859
3. Bhudargad ..	Bhudargad, Kagal (Pt.), Ajra (Pt.). ..	46,312	20,941	67,253
4. Vishalgad ..	Shahuwadi (Pt.) ..	44,626	4,254	48,880
5. Ajra ..	Ajra (Pt.), Gadhinglaj, Kagal (Pt.) ..	15,684	17.279	32,963
6. Radhanagari ..	Radhanagari (Pt.) and Bavda (Pt.). ..	65,227	18,444	83,671
7. Bavda ..	Bavda (Pt.) ..	Nil.	18,277	18,277
Kolhapur District		2,34.540	1.08,818	3,43,358

Note:—Pt. = Part.

It will be observed that total area under forests, as recorded in the previous table and in the above table does not agree with each other.*

Kumri Cultivation.

Kumri cultivation (wood-ash tillage) is practised mainly in the hilly regions of the west. Shrubs and bushes on the farm land are burnt and then seeds of *nachana* and varai are broadcast. The cultivators raise the crop for about two years and leave the area to rest for a period of about ten years after which the cycle is again repeated. In some cases, the cycle

* The main causes of this discrepancy are :—(i) The dates of reporting the area figures for annual reports differ in the case of the Forest and Revenue Departments. Forest department statistics are for the financial year whereas Revenue Department statistics are for the agricultural year. (ii) As a result of the merger of States (1949) the forest areas of the then States are now managed by the Forest Department. They are not yet legally constituted as Reserved and Protected forests and the work in this connection is in progress (1956-57). However, for the time being, such areas are shown by the Forest Department as forest areas whereas in some cases Revenue Department shows them as waste lands.

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is as short as of four to five years. Formerly, vast areas of forest land were given out for *kumri* cultivation to the villagers. Most of these lands have now become barren due to heavy soil erosion resulting from repeated *kumri* cultivation. After the merger of the former, Kolhapur State, however, the practice was discontinued. Thereafter the people satisfied their land hunger by *kumri* cultivation on waste lands in charge of the Revenue Department. Now, since these waste lands are getting impoverished by *kumri* cultivation, villagers have started turning their eyes to the virgin forest lands in charge of the Forest Department.

Forest Products.

Forest products are divided into two main classes, major and minor. Major forest products comprise mainly wood (i.e. timber and fuel). The total coupe revenue in Kolhapur district in 1955-56 amounted to Rs. 73,166. Minor products in the district are *kaju* fruits, *watsol, amsol,* honey and wax, *ghaymori phade, mano* fruits, *bibi* fruits, *apta temburni* leaves, *sawat* cotton, *lavala kuchal* seed, *shembi* bark, *wavding, karanj* seed and *hirda* fruits. They yielded a revenue of Rs. 26,086. Among the minor products *hirda* fruits are a major contributor to the revenue; next in importance are *shikekai* and *apta temburni* leaves.

Culturable Waste Lands.

Culturable waste lands come next in importance (about 21 per cent.) to forests which occupied the highest acreage of uncultivated area. These include all lands available for cultivation, whether not taken up for cultivation or abandoned after five years for one reason or the other. Such lands may be either fallow or covered with shrubs and jungles which are not put to any use. They may be assessed or unassessed and may lie in isolated blocks or within cultivated holdings. This category also includes lands once cultivated but not cultivated for five years in succession.

The remaining 39 per cent. of uncultivated area is distributed mainly under three categories. Permanent pastures and other grazing lands stand next to culturable waste lands. Barren land and mountains occupy a considerable part of the district. The area occupied by buildings, roads and railways and water (i.e., land put to non-agricultural uses) was 6 per cent. of the total uncultivated area. The area under other categories, namely, "other fallows" and "land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves" was almost insignificant.

Cropped Area.

The gross cropped area of the district has been recorded as 9,37,674 acres in 1955-56, of which 19,061 acres of land are cropped more than once; hence net cropped area in the district in that year comes to 9,18,613. It is interesting to study how this cropped area is distributed as between food and non-food crops as also in different seasons. The following tables bring out these features very clearly:—

TABLE No. 10.

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPPED AREA IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT DURING THE YEAR 1955-56.

(In acres)

Taluka.	Gross Cropped Area.							Area cropped more than once.	Net cropped area.	Matured.	Failed.
	Kharif.		Rabi.		Total.		Grand Total.				
	Food crops.	Non-food crops.	Food crops.	Non-food crops.	Food crops.	Non-food crops.					
Ajara	45,329	28,444	359	..	45,688	28,444	74,132	316	73,816	74,132	..
Bavada ..	21,581	5,431	123	..	21,704	5,431	27,135	69	27,066	27,135	..
Bhudargad	46,515	12,640	676	..	47,191	12,640	59,831	666	59,165	59,831	..
Gadhinglaj ..	61,637	39,757	1,309	20	62,946	39,777	1,02,723	1,384	1,01,339	1,02,723	..
Hatkanangle ..	67,658	47,662	3,841	..	71,499	47,662	1,19,161	2,176	1,16,985	1,19,161	..
Kagal	58,958	58,985	3,588	6	62,546	58,991	1,21,537	930	1,20,607	1,21,537	..
Karvir	69,244	36,204	5,309	..	74,553	36,204	1,10,757	2,654	1,08,103	1.10.757	..
Panhala ..	44,307	29,060	4,021	..	48,328	29,060	77,388	2,091	75,297	77,388	..
Radhanagari	46,287	20,531	1,946		48,233	20,531	68,764	3,411	65,353	68,764	..
Shahuwadi ..	41,439	20,967	7,002	..	48,441	20,967	69,408	4,924	64,484	69,408	..
Shirol	54,605	41,710	9,292	1,231	63,607	42,941	1,06,838	440	1,06,398	1,06,838	..
District Total ..	5,57,560	3,41,391	37,466	1,257	5,95,026	3,42,648	9,37,674	19,061	9,18,613	9,37,674	..

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Cropped Area.

TABLE No. 11.

ACREAGES UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT DURING 1955-56.

Crop.	Ajara.	Bavada	Bhudargad.	Gadhinglaj.	Hatkanangale.	Kagal.	Karvir.	Panhala.	Radhanagari.	Shahuwadi.	Shirol.	District Total.
Cereals	41,745	20,662	41,533	50,310	51,569	49,383	54,400	38,829	39,874	43,114	44,892	4,76,311
Pulses	2,488	112	1,481	5,761	8,792	5,834	5,712	2,796	1,735	2,037	14,046	51,694
Sugarcane	857	926	3,925	2,980	6,725	4,114	12,687	5,457	6,212	2,122	2,356	48,361
Fruits (fresh and dry) ..	14	1	1	432	111	12	41	11	5	9	93	730
Vegetables	40	..	16	180	277	176	390	205	241	168	238	1,931
Fibres—												
(a) Cotton ..	23	..	41	1,744	1,237	837	29	19	..	..	4,943	8,873
(b) Other fibres ..	145	..	11	384	163	98	249	133	5	7	40	1,235
(c) Total fibres ..	168	..	52	2,128	1,400	935	278	152	5	7	4,983	10,108
Oil Seeds—												
(a) Edible Oil Seeds ..	5,644	2	4,314	16,911	25,148	18,737	10,861	7,211	2,741	5,808	17,703	1,15,080
(b) Non-Edible Seeds ..	733	533	773	123	40	29	22	147	1,145	..	28	3,573
(c) Total Oil Seeds ..	6,377	535	5,087	17,034	25,188	18,766	10,883	7,358	3,886	5,808	17,731	1,18,653
Drugs and Narcotics ..	27	..	5	5,432	9,246	5,642	1,000	14	3	26	15,234	36,629
Condiments and Spices ..	544	3	223	3,283	4,025	3,027	1,323	1,026	166	91	2,272	15,983
Fodder crops ..	21,872	4,896	7,496	15,183	11,828	33,647	24,033	21,536	16,637	15,128	4,993	1,77,247
Other miscellaneous non-food crops ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	10	..	..	..	..	11
Other miscellaneous food crops	..	..	12	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	16

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation. LAND UTILISATION. Cropped Area.

Most of the crops in the district are taken in *kharif* season. Only about four per cent. of gross cropped area is under crops taken in *rabi* season. Another point that emerges from these tables is that about 63 per cent. of cropped area is under food crops as against 37 per cent. under non-food crops. This shows that the place of non-food crops is not insignificant in the agricultural economy of the district, though food crops do occupy a dominant position.

The main food crops of the district are: rice, jowar, *ragi*, *varai*, *sava*, bajri, maize, wheat and other hill-millets among cereals; *turi*, horse-gram,, gram, black-gram, *vatana*,, *mug*, other pulses and sugarcane. Fruits and vegetables constitute a negligible portion. Among the important non-food crops are: groundnut and niger among oilseeds; tobacco among drugs and narcotics; chillies among condiments and spices; cotton and fodder crops. Betel leaves and fibres other than cottton are also grown in the district, though acreage under them is negligible.

Changes in Crop Pattern.

Has there been any change in the crop pattetrn followed by the husbandmen of the district since compilation of last Gazetteer (1886)? The data available for comparison are not based on identical conditions in regard to total acreage, classification of crops etc. Therefore the comparison would not be completely valid. However, broad indication may be obtained from the following table:—

TABLE No. 12.

ACREAGE UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN ACRES IN 1881-82 AND 1955-56.

Crops.	1881-82*	1955-56.
Cereals:—		
Rice	89,038	1,87,439
Wheat	10,014	5,899
Barley	146	7
Jowar	2,60,197	1,47,887
Bajri	32,570	10,290
Maize	3,295	8,792
Ragi	82,980	70,026
Italian Millets	19,125	3,903
Kodo or Varagu (Kodra)	1,314	3,224
Vari	7,148	17,830
Sava	19,952	20,580
Others	....	425
Total—Cereals	5,25,779	4,76,311

* Figures are for Kolhapur State.

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LAND UTILISATION.
Changes in Crop Pattern.

TABLE No. 12—*contd.*

Crops.	1881-82*	1955-56.
Pulses :—		
Gram	17,738	8,987
Green Gram (mug)	2,204	693
Tur (Arhar)	22,078	18,991
Black Gram or Urad (Mash)	3,308	5,330
Horse Gram	2,530	9,561
Masur	1,513	210
Math	696	708
Val	1,049	1,832
Chavali	232	144
Watana	4,470	4,526
Others	...	712
Total—Pulses ..	55,917	51,694
Oil Seeds :—		
Edible—		
Groundnut	27,543	1,13,978
Cocoanut	....	2
Sesamum	927	47
Safflower	5,223	447
Others	482	606
Total—Edible Oil Seeds ..	34,175	1,15,080
Non-Edible—		
Linseed	505	1
Castor	1,980	16
Niger seed	9,442	3,556
Total—Non-Edible Oil seeds ..	11,933	3,573
Total—Oil Seeds ..	46,108	1,18,653

* Figures are for Kolhapur State.

TABLE No. 12—*concld.*

Crops.	1881–82*	*1955–56
Drugs and Narcotics :—		
Tobacco	10,193	36,100
Betal Leaves	....	529
Total	10,193	36,629
Sugarcane	9,900	48,361
Total—Sugarcane	9,900	48,361
Condiments and Spices :—		
Chillies	8,469	14,262
Turmeric	1,267	1,608
Coriander	2,570	56
Garlic	...	44
Fenugreek (Methi)	....	9
Others	...	4
Total—Condiments and Spices	12,306	15,983
Fibres :—		
Cotton	29,192	8,873
Sann Hemp (Bombay Hemp)	3,160	593
Ghayal	...	1
Others	....	2
Total—Fibres	32,352	9,469
Fruits and Vegetables :—		
Fruits and Vegetables	1,562	2,661
Total—Fruits and Vegetables	1,562	2,661
Fodder Crops	....	1,77,247
Total—Fodder Crops	...	1,77,247
Others	54,480	27
Total—Others	54,480	27
GRAND TOTAL	7,48,597	9,37,035

* Figures are for Kolhapur State.

CHAPTER 5.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Changes in Crop Pattern.

It will be observed that in the former Kolhapur State, cereals occupied nearly 70 per cent. of the cropped area in 1881-82. This percentage showed a decline of nearly 20 points in 1955-56. The area under rice, increased by about 22 per cent. while in the case of jowar it went down by nearly 20 per cent. In the case of pulse crops, no significant change is observed in the acreages for the group as a whole. Area under oilseeds increased from six per cent. in 1881-82 to 13 per cent. in 1955-56. Among oilseeds, area under groundnut registered a considerable increase from 60 per cent. in 1881-82 to 96 per cent. in 1955-56. Groundnut cultivation gained in importance because of the cash value of the crop. Tobacco, because of its increasing importance as a cash crop, also recorded an increase of over three per cent. In 1881-82, acreage under this crop was little more than one per cent. of gross cropped area while in 1955-56 it rose to five per cent. In the case of sugarcane, there is an increase of about 4 per cent. over the acreage under this crop in 1881-82. Increased and improved irrigation facilities are responsible to a large extent for this increase.

HOLDINGS.

THE SIZE AND COMPOSITION OF AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS have undergone considerable change since the publication of Kolhapur State Gazetteer in 1881-82. In that year, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 75,345. Of these, 35,362 were holdings of not more than five acres; 16,787 were of six to ten acres; 12,778 of eleven to twenty acres; 7,800 of twenty-one to fifty acres, 2,145 of fifty-one to a hundred acres; 453 of 101 to 500 acres; and 20 above 500 acres (including two of more than 2,000 acres). The following table gives the number of holders, and the area held by them in Government Rayatwari area in Kolhapur district in 1952-53 :—

TABLE No. 13.

Quinquennial Statement of Holdings in Government Rayatwari Area in Kolhapur District, 1952-53.

	Class A.			Class B.			Class C.			Total.	
	No. of persons.	Area Held.		No. of persons.	Area held.		No. of persons.	Area held.		No. of persons.	Area held.
		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Upto 5 Acres ..	86,524	1,60,331	14,288	1,250	2,635	1,843	17,556	29,668	6,099	1,05,330	2,14,864
2. Over 5 and upto 15	22,130	1,58,094	12,933	637	4,602	1.715	5,674	35,380	8,662	28,441	2,21,386
3. Over 15 and upto 25 ..	4.946	80,921	6.733	229	3,833	993	1,356	19,185	5,295	6,531	1,16,860
4. Over 25 and upto 100 ..	3.069	1,05,973	7,475	195	8,029	1,189	1,153	39,308	8,854	4,417	1,70,828
5. Over 100 and upto 500 ..	92	13,409	1,604	29	3,150	898	173	19,505	9,321	294	47,887
6. Over 500 ..	4	511	1,750	2	100	2,099	46	15,214	23,979	52	43,653
Total ..	1,16,765	5,19,239	44,783	2,342	22,349	8,637	25,958	1,58,260	62,210	1,45,065	8,15,478

Class '*A*'.—Those persons who cultivate land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.

Class '*B*'.—Those persons who do not cultivate land themselves, but supervise and direct cultivation by labourers or farm servants.

Class '*C*'.—Those who receive rent but do not directly or indirectly take part in cultivation.

Note—In view of the definition of "personal cultivation" given in the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955, the distinction between classes *A* and *B* disappears with the result that there will generally be only one class. Most of the lands will fall in this class and in the present *C* class, which will have to be classed as *B*, the tenanted lands will be very small in extent.

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—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
HOLDINGS.

The size of an average holding* works out to about 5·6 acres for the district. It seems to have been influenced by the preponderance of holders having their holdings of less than five acres each. Nearly 72·6 per cent. of the total holders belonged to this class and held only 26·3 per cent. of the total area held. Holdings of 19·6 per cent. ranged between five and fifteen acres; they held 27·2 per cent. of the total area. A large number of them cultivated the land themselves with or without the help of hired labour.

It is interesting to note that nearly 46·5 per cent. of the total area held was in the charge of a handful of persons (about 7·8 per cent.). Their holdings stood between 15 and 500 acres (and above). The existence of jagirs and inams in the former Kolhapur State was probably responsible for this concentration of ownership in land. Those with large holdings showed a tendency to rent out the land to others. Irrigation facilities or an assured rainfall in parts of the district might have stimulated the tendency to lease out land in places where much land was held in large holdings instead of hiring labour for cultivation as is usually done in the case of large holdings in dry crop regions. Thus, though there were 52 holders, with an average landholding of more than 500 acres, majority of them were absentee landlords.

The size of holding varies from taluka to taluka and is dependent on rainfall, soil, crop pattern, pressure of population, financial condition of the rayats and the extent of absentee landlordism prevailing. In Kagal taluka the highest average of 10·39 acres was recorded while in Radhanagari it was the lowest, namely 4·14 acres. The following table gives the quinquennial statement of holdings in various talukas of the district:—

*"Holding" is the area of land (may be consisting of scattered fragments in different areas) registered in the name of a "holder".

TABLE No. 14.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (TALUKWISE), 1952-53.

Magnitude Groups.	Classes.	AJARA.			BAVADA MAHAL.			BHUDARGAD.		
		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.	
			Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 to 5 Acres ..	A	11,497	31,101	10,535	2,885	6,553	359	8,160	9,784	4,122
	B	..	..	..	..	..	..	171	306	139
	C	155	4,305	..	88	140	33	2,349	2,397	2,542
5 to 15 Acres ..	A	46	377	36	1,359	12,427	220	1,944	11,061	4,072
	B	9	57	11	1	6	..	135	914	324
	C	104	862	109	36	289	32	500	2,787	1,140
15 to 25 Acres ..	A	21	284	35	509	10,548	128	283	3,998	1,509
	B	3	49	..	..	..	..	45	619	218
	C	34	449	110	21	404	..	142	2,126	506
25 to 100 Acres ..	A	15	477	129	434	17,918	111	210	5,302	2,173
	B	5	110	26	8	296	..	21	816	209
	C	78	2,883	217	39	1,389	302	109	2,429	1,483
100 to 500 Acres ..	A	2	384	..	21	3,009	223	..	..	..
	B	..	..	..	1	110	..	2	213	3
	C	27	3,242	1,749	10	971	650	15	1,265	1,802
500 and above ..	A	.	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
	B	.	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..
	C	15	2,896	12,612	.	..	..	1	..	5,646
Total ..	..	12,009	47,476	25,569	5,412	54,060	2,058	14,087	44,017	25,888

TALBE No. 14—*contd.*

Magnitude Groups.	Classes.	KARVIR			PANHALA.			RADHANAGARI.		
		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.	
			Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 to 5 Acres	A	15,268	25,496	4,147	8,697	15,351	505	8,383	14,369	851
	B	1,439	4,189	1.834	107	146	56	269	613	80
	C	2,613	2,160	643	2,393	3,226	315	878	1,206	113
5 to 15 Acres	A	3,604	11,351	917	2,390	16,865	1,443	2,218	10,808	385
	B	1,234	8,828	827	45	309	82	51	372	21
	C	1,163	21,189	426	462	3,513	759	191	1,536	128
15 to 25 Acres	A	839	11,002	1,858	409	7,104	792	285	6,355	270
	B	578	7,431	958	18	245	119	13	250	4
	C	318	4,480	435	85	1,765	238	54	1,081	119
25 to 100 Acres	A	231	8,213	429	181	6,157	591	184	6,329	286
	B	196	6,971	1,172	17	518	182	7	269	..
	C	125	3,971	333	96	3,963	279	84	3,225	138
100 to 500 Acres	A	15	2,171	432	2	328	..	9	2,130	..
	B	21	3,809	302	4	498	12	..	..	..
	C	20	2,889	302	2	416	284	11	1,420	3
500 and above	A	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	B	1	969	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	C	4	2,907	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	..	27,669	1,28,026	15,015	14,917	60,406	5,657	12,637	49,963	2,398

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TABLE No. 14—*contd*.

Magnitude Groups.	Classes.	GADHINGLAJ			HATKANANGALE.			KAGAL.		
		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.		No. of Persons.	Area in Acres.	
			Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 to 5 Acres ..	A	10,707	11,518	9,230	11,737	19,801	3,132	5,153	5,281	1,421
	B	74	205	78	233	599	201	21	84	16
	C	1,451	1,769	1,383	3,203	5,104	1,516	617	2,049	640
5 to 15 Acres ..	A	2,415	9,933	9,224	2,817	21,006	2,750	1,927	13,077	4,046
	B	68	462	267	136	791	239	37	416	91
	C	560	2,294	2,210	1,263	8,111	2,784	461	3,736	1,527
15 to 25 Acres ..	A	418	3,361	4,071	477	7,201	958	673	10,660	1,849
	B	11	71	144	45	898	111	19	467	43
	C	117	1,012	1,147	299	4,163	1,684	106	2,379	959
25 to 100 Acres ..	A	143	2,309	2,904	206	7,067	738	699	23,646	3,039
	B	10	257	272	37	1,605	401	38	845	201
	C	113	1,372	1,585	204	7,001	1,704	57	6,462	1,919
100 to 500 Acres ..	A	2	143	186	10	1,134	350	13	2,278	318
	B	3	1	455	9	856	315	2	389	1,101
	C	11	668	781	22	3,375	1,040	4	3,768	9,627
500 and above ..	A	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	B	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	C	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	.	16,103	35,375	33,037	20,698	88,772	17,938	9,847	75,537	26,797

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TABLE No. 14—*concld.*

Magnitude Groups.	Classes.	SHAHUWADI. No. of Persons.	SHAHUWADI. Area in Acres. Khalsa.	SHAHUWADI. Area in Acres. Inam.	SHIROL. No. of Persons.	SHIROL. Area in Acres. Khalsa.	SHIROL. Area in Acres. Inam.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 to 5 Acres ..	A	7,889	14,171	1,092	9,760	13,298	7,077
	B	31	101	..	199	274	133
	C	884	768	251	2,214	2,383	2,779
5 to 15 Acres ..	A	2,392	20,877	561	2,825	17,187	7,570
	B	16	160	2	83	477	224
	C	162	1,050	202	746	3,420	3,653
15 to 25 Acres ..	A	681	32,961	122	663	8,509	3,295
	B	11	233	..	45	550	386
	C	38	739	5	233	1,473	2,787
25 to 100 Acres ..	A	475	21,653	324	350	8,045	1,573
	B	9	284	..	21	585	321
	C	23	1,275	39	142	2,294	2,682
100 to 500 Acres ..	A	8	1,865	2	8	687	519
	B	..	..	..	1	..	304
	C	3	288	..	20	1,724	2,564
500 and above ..	A	..	..	..	2	..	1,664
	B	..	..	..	..	..	....
	C	..	..	..	2	1,374	1,429
Total ..	..	12,622	96,325	2,600	17,314	62,280	38,960

CHAPTER 5.

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HOLDINGS.
Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings.

WITH A VIEW TO PREVENTING FRAGMENTATION and initiating the process of consolidation of holdings, the Government of Bombay enacted a law called the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947. It was made applicable to Kolhapur district in 1954.

The first part of the enactment deals with prevention of further fragmentation of land. Government has been empowered to fix the "standard area" (i.e. the minimum area necessary for profitable cultivation as a separate plot) for any class of land in any local area. The "standard area" is such as is expected to keep the cultivator fully employed on the field, and the yield from it is expected to be sufficient to cover the cost of cultivation and Government revenue assessment and also to yield a reasonable profit. On account of difference in quality of soil, climate, standard of husbandry and other factors, the standard areas for different types of land vary from district to district. The range of the standard area applicable to various types of land in the district is as follows:—

Jirayat	1 acre.
Rice . .	20 gunthas.
Bagayat	20 gunthas.
Varkas . ..	2 acres.

Under the law, the standard areas are fixed by the Collector in consultation with the District Advisory Committee and after consideration of any objection from the public to his provisional figures which have to be published for general information inviting objections. All existing holdings which are smaller than the standard area are declared as fragments and entered in the Record of Rights as such and the fact is notified to the fragment holders. By 1958, the work of entering the fragments in the Record of Rights had been completed in respect of over 850 villages and notices to this effect had been issued for about 817 villages. The work of certification of mutation regarding fragments was completed for over 838 villages.

The fragment holder and his heir can cultivate and inherit the fragment, but if at any time the fragment holder or his heir wants to sell or lease the fragment, it must be sold or leased to a contiguous holder who can merge it with his field. In case the contiguous holder is unwilling to take it or purposely makes a low bid, Government purchases the fragment in question at the market value according to the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and leases it out to any of the neighbouring holders. In this process tenants of the fragments are protected and they are not to be discontinued. Creation of fragments in future is prohibited. It cannot be done either by transfer or partition. Transfer or

CHAPTER 5.

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HOLDINGS.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings.

partition contrary to the provisions of the Act is void and persons guilty of breach of the law are liable to pay a fine upto Rs. 250.

Side by side the Act also provides for the consolidation of holdings into compact blocks. This involves valuation of all holdings in a village and then redistribution in such a manner as to secure to each cultivator the same return from land which he had got prior to consolidation. Every effort is made to ensure that exchange is made only of lands of equal fertility and outturn. Where such exchange is not possible, compensation is paid to the owner who is allotted a holding of less market value than his original holding and this compensation is recovered from the owner who is allotted the holding which has greater value than his original holding. This amount of compensation is fixed according to the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act. After the process of consolidation is over, the tenure of the original holding is transferred to the new consolidated holding. Similarly, leases, debts and encumbrances, if any, are also transferred, adjusted and fixed up. The interests of tenants are safeguarded, as far as posssible, and tenancies are usually transferred to the exchanged land. If there is any difference in value, between the original holdings and the exchanged ones, adjustments in rents are made.

In Kolhapur district by 1958, 50 villages had been selected for implementing the schemes of consolidation of agricultural holdings and duly notified in accordance with section 15 of the Act; nine and 26 villages respectively were from the talukas of Hatkanangle and Karvir and 15 were from Panhala mahal. An area of 92,644 acres was available for the purpose. The work of consolidation had been taken up in 26 villages (area available 53,164 acres) viz. Padli, Manpadle, Wathar, Talsande, Chaware, Pargaon, and Ambap in Hatkanangle taluka; Kurdu, Isphurli, Nandwal, Kavane, Mahalunge, Yewati, Nigave Kh., and Khebavade in Karvir taluka; and Amatewadi, Shahapur, Borpadale, Pokhale, Jakhale, Dewale, Mohare, Arale, Kekhale, Bahirewadi, and Male in Panhala mahal. The execution of consolidation schemes had been completed in eight villages, namely, Padle, Wathar, Talsande, Amtewadi. Shahapur, Borpadale, Pokhale, Jakhale. Consolidation schemes have been published in about three villages viz., Ambap, Isphurli, and Kekhale. The area actually consolidated was 14,380 acres. The number of holdings and fragments reduced from 11,084 and 7,273 before consolidation to 5,735 and 2,400 respectively after consolidation.

In addition, consolidation schemes were in progress in nine villages, namely, Pargaon, Mohare, Kurdu, Chaware, Arale, Kavane, Bahirewadi, Nandwal, Mahalunge, and it was proposed to take up consolidation work in the remaining four villages (Male, Yawati, Nigave Kh., Khebawade) by 1958-59.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

FOR STEPPING UP AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION and for ensuring economic cultivation, an increase in the unit of cultivation is necessary. Here co-operative farming has direct relevance. Co-operative farming necessarily implies pooling of land and joint management. Without under-mining the sense of proprietorship and the incentive to industry that it gives, co-operative farms can produce all the advantages that a larger unit possesses.

There was only one co-operative farming society in former Kolhapur State when it was merged in the Bombay State and the Kolhapur district constituted. Twelve more societies have been organised under the Co-operative Farming Scheme started in 1949 in the State.

There are four kinds of co-operative farming societies and the description of each is given below:—

(i) *Co-operative Collective Farming.*—The society itself cultivates the land which it owns or takes on lease. No dividend is paid on the share capital. Members get wages for their work and in the case of profits a bonus is paid in proportion to their wages. Members have the option to withdraw from such a society, in which case they get back their capital. There were nine co-operative farming societies in the district

(ii) *Co-operative Tenant Farming.*—The co-operative tenant farming society owns land or gets it on lease, but farming is not carried on by itself. Land is divided into blocks and each block is given on rent to a cultivator who has to produce according to the plan laid down by the society. The society gives its members all facilities regarding seed, finance and implements. There were three societies of this type.

(iii) *Co-operative Better Farming.*—The ownership and management of land rests with the individual; the society provides better seeds, manures and facilities for irrigation storage and marketing. There was only one better farming society (at Mhaswe). It has been registered only recently. It proposes to make available irrigation facilities to its members.

(iv) *Co-operative Joint Farming.*—To enjoy the advantages of large-scale farming and solve the problem of sub-division and fragmentation of holdings, this kind of farming is most suited. The land of small owners is pooled into one unit though proprietorship rests with individual members. No such society has been registered so far.

Most of the societies have been organised on Government waste lands; eight societies belonged to backward class persons (who are mainly landless agriculturists), two to both backward

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

and non-backward class persons and one each to dhangar community, displaced persons and non-backward class persons.

The following statement shows particulars in respect of farming societies in Kolhapur district: —

TABLE No. 15.

FARMING SOCIETIES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars.	Tenant Farming.	Collective Farming.
1. Number of societies	3	9
2. Membership	194	373
3. Acreage in possession . ..	425	1,067
4. Acreage brought under cultivation ..	60	359
5. Share Capital	Rs. 5,740	Rs. 11,945
6. Reserve Fund	„ 274	„ 948
7. Working Capital	„ 22,578	„ 43,817
8. Government Financial Assistance—		
(a) Loan for Share Capital	„ 4,000	„ 11,000
(b) Loan for Land Development ..	„ 18,750	„ 7,565
(c) Subsidy for Land Development ..	„ 6,250	„ 735
(d) Loan for digging a well .. .	„	„ 2,400
(e) Subsidy for digging a well ..	„	„ 600
(f) Subsidy for purchase of seeds, manures, etc.	„ 2,250	„ 4,558

9. The thirteenth society, namely, the Better Farming Society at Mhaswe in Bhudhargad taluka has been registered very recently.

CEREALS.

The following tables show acreage, outturn and prices of different food and non-food crops (during 1950-56), and area under cereals in 1955-56 in Kolhapur district: —

TABLE No. 16.

ACREAGE, OUTTURN AND PRICES OF DIFFERENT FOOD AND NON-FOOD CROPS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, DURING 1950-56.

	1950–51			1951–52			1952–53		
	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 ⅐ lbs.	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 ⅐ lbs.	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 ⅐ lbs.
			Rs. a.			Rs. a.			Rs. a.
1. Rice	1,745	590	10 11*	1,669	452	12 4*	1,667	438	13 0*
2. Jowar . ..	1,482	464	9 4	1,444	506	11 0	1,454	511	11 0
3. Bajri	114	9	10 2	101	5	12 0	107	5	13 8
4. Ragi .. .	569	85	9 0	592	16	10 12	617	145	13 5
5. Vari	114	....	....	142	....	....	111	....	....
6. Sava . ..	24[illegible]	....	....	192	....	....	209	....	....
7. Total cereals	4,478	1,214	....	4,371	1,122	....	4,378	1,181	....
8. Total Pulses	544	64	....	503	76	....	479	86	....
9. Total Oilseeds .. .	1,120	....	....	1,199	....	....	1,215	....	....
10. Total Condiments and spices.	172	....	....	170	....	....	152	....	....
11. Total Fodder .. .	1,346	....	....	1,503	....	....	1 639	....	....
12. Total Sugars .. .	383	@1,258	**25 6	467	@1,408	**16 0	443	@1,335	**14 0
Total Non-food (9 to 12) crops.	3,021	....	....	3,339	....	....	3,449	....	....

Note.—* Price of one maund of paddy.

** Price of raw-gul.

@Sugarcane (gul).

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

	1953–54			1954–55			1955–56		
	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 2/7 lbs.	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 2/7 lbs.	Total area in hundred acres.	Total outturn in hundred tons.	Prices per maund of 82 2/7 lbs.
			Rs. a.			Rs. a.			Rs. a.
1. Rice	1,736	537	12 8*	1,851	799	10 0*	1,874	725	17 0*
2. Jowar	1,428	398	9 0	1,387	692	9 0	1,489	538	12 8
3. Bajri	118	9	12 0	101	8	12 0	103	10	12 11
4. Ragi	601	161	11 5	687	171	7 10	700	174	11 5
5. Vari	253	....	....	195	....	....	178	....	....
6. Sava	238	....	....	226	....	....	205	....	....
7. Total cereals	4,604	1,208	....	4,656	1,789	....	4,763	1,548	....
8. Total Pulses	506	95	....	508	98	..	517	110	....
9. Total Oilseeds	1,153	....	....	1,222	....	....	1,187	....	....
10. Total Condiments and spices.	124	....	....	152	....	....	160	....	....
11. Total Fodder	1,754	....	....	1,787	....	....	1,772	....	....
12. Total Sugars	373	@1,122	**19 8	444	@1,339	**16 0	483	@1,516	**13 7
Total Non-food (9 to 12) crops.	3,404	....	....	3,605	....	....	3,602	....	....

Note.—* Price of one maund of paddy.

**Price of raw gul.

@ Sugarcane (gul).

TABLE No. 17.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER CEREALS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Name of cereal crop.	Ajara.	Bavda.	Bhudargad.	Gadhinglaj.	Hatkanangle.	Kagal.	Karvir.	Panhala.	Radhanagari.	Shahuwadi.	Shirol.	District Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rice ..	18,534	9,328	21,685	17,751	5,282	20,036	28,604	21,109	22,812	21,078	1,220	1,87,439
Wheat ..	52	2	81	238	1,393	257	601	599	318	1,168	1,190	5,899
Barley ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	..	..	..	7
Jowar—												
(a) Kharif ..	5,089	5	2,810	17,980	36,937	18,604	12,785	7,759	865	2,678	35,723	1,41,235
(b) Rabi ..	..	..	..	219	783	339	2,504	1,080	..	564	1,163	6,652
(c) Total ..	5,089	5	2,810	18,199	37,720	18,943	15,289	8,839	865	3,242	36,886	1,47,887
Bajri ..	195	..	10	607	4,594	364	359	141	..	1	4,019	10,290
Maize ..	72	62	229	608	581	348	986	1,182	109	3,114	1,501	8,792
Ragi ..	12,928	4,667	10,309	9,211	85	4,775	5,078	4,972	9,474	8,411	26	70,026
Italian Millets ..	123	..	100	340	232	1,547	1,116	149	252	..	44	3,903
Kodo or Varagu (Kodra).	..	2,473	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	751	..	3,224
Vari ..	97	4,006	1,624	118	857	1,065	746	1,290	3,881	4,149	6	17,839
Sava ..	4,655	119	4,595	3,185	825	2,048	1,621	541	2,163	828	..	20,580
Other cereals—												
(a) Kharif ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	372	..	372
(b) Rabi ..	..	..	..	53	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53
(c) Total ..	..	..	..	53	..	..	..	..	..	372	..	425
Total cereals ..	41,745	20,662	41,533	50,310	51,569	49,383	54,400	38,829	39,874	43,114	44,892	4,76,311

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Table No. 16 reveals that the acreage as well as production under different food and non-food crops did not show any marked change during 1950-56. The significant fact worth noticing is the variations and sometimes an upward trend in prices prevailing for different commodities, which, however, were not due to operation of local factors of special importance. But this could be explained as a phenomenon in keeping with the general upward trend in the price level, all over the country. The other aspect worth noticing is the gradual increase in acreage under non-food crops from 3,02,100 acres in 1950-51 to 3,60,200 in 1955-56. Among the group, however, the increase in acreage seemed to be mostly confined to acreage under "fodder" and under "sugars"—an important commercial crop of the district.

Bhat.

Bhat (rice) is the staple food crop of the district, especially of talukas in the western zone, though it is also grown in other talukas. It occupied about 40 per cent. of the area under cereal crops in the district in 1955-56. The six talukas of Shahuwadi, Karvir, Radhanagari, Panhala, Bhudargad and Kagal occupied, amongst themselves, more than 70 per cent. of the area under rice.

Rice is sown in June and harvested from about the middle of September onwards depending upon weather. The variety is mid late or late one. Its average yield per acre is about 1,500 lbs. Several varieties of rice are grown in Kolhapur district. The black (*kale*) *jirga* rice of Ajra is a well known scented variety. Besides this, there are other good varieties of *sakharsal* and *kolamba* which are generally grown in good soils and known for good yield per acre. There are other inferior varieties too, namely *aviste, havale-mothe, patni, kale-patani, kale-mohan, masad, dodaka, tamsal, mothe-pandhare* and *take*. In the talukas other than those of Shahuwadi, Karvir, Radhanagari and Panhala, paddy seed is sown by a six coultered drill with a distance of six inches in between. The land is ploughed twice, harrowed and manured, if possible, by farm yard manure. This is done in March-April. By May the land is well packed by working with a *phali*. After getting sufficient rain for sowing, the paddy seed is sown direct by the seed drill and covered by a wooden harrow. The seed is, at times, sown in the third week of May in anticipation of rains in the dry lands. The process is known as *dhul-waf-pera*. An improved method of sowing known as the dibbling method is now in practice in these lands. Instead sowing by drill after preparing the land, the fields are marked by a marker (*yadtang* or *tikatane*) between two lines vertical and horizontal, with a distance of about 10" in between. At each cross, about 5 to 6 seeds of paddy are sown by making a hole and covering it. This method, though it requires more labour for dibbling, saves seed as well as labour on the subsequent operations and gives better yield than drilled paddy.

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Bhat.

The system of transplanting is followed only in western and heavy rainfall areas, namely, western parts of Shahuwadi, Panhala, Bavada, Radhanagari, Bhudargad and Ajra talukas. In March-April a plot is chosen for the seed-beds, preferably on higher ground in the field itself. On the seed-beds are spread layers (called *rab*) of dry leaves from forests and grass which are burnt. The seed is then broadcast on the ashes and covered by the soil. This is done after a fair shower of monsoon, generally in the month of June. In July, the seedlings are ready for transplanting when they are five weeks old and grow six inches in height. They are taken from the seed bed, tied in bundles and, after washing them in running water, taken to fields for being planted by hand.

The method of transplanting is expensive and laborious. Rice fields, called *waffas,* are generally formed by embanking all the four sides by earthern bunds to hold sufficient water for transplanting and for growth of the crop. The supply of water is controlled by these bunds. The best rice soil is the one which retains moisture for a longer time with fair clay structure. The yield of rice depends upon constant supply of fresh water and of manures at the proper time. After transplanting is over, water is kept standing in the field upto a certain level till the crop ripens. The crop is ready for harvest from the middle of October onwards. The crop is cut by sickle (*khurpa*) and the stalks, with earheads, are stacked near the threshing floor.

In this region sann-hemp is used for green manuring in certain parts before transplanting in this way. The sann-seed is broadcast after the first monsoon shower and the land is ploughed. After about a month, when the land is being prepared, the sann-crop is buried underground. The sann-crop at this stage being very tender gets decomposed in about a week's time after it is buried. The land is puddled and only then transplanting of seedlings is completed

Recently, some improved varieties (early, midlate and late ones) of rice have been introduced in the district. They are Patni No. 6, D-6-2-2, Panvel-61, Antarsal-90, Antarsal-67, Mugad 81, Mugad 161, Warangal-487 and Yelikirisal-4.

Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation.

Recently, Japanese method of paddy cultivation has attracted attention of the farmers as a result of the propaganda carried on by the Department of Agriculture to popularise this method in Maharashtra State. Kolhapur District, being a major paddy producing area, has been considered suitable for the introduction of this method. Farm demonstrations and publicity programmes (posters, films, brochures. etc.) are organised to popularise it. Results of the demonstration plots have shown that, on an average, the cost of cultivation by Japanese Method comes to Rs. 230 per acre as against Rs. 150 by the local method while the average yield per acre under these two methods is

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Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation.

about 30 maunds and 15 to 20 maunds respectively. In Kolhapur district more than 11,000 acres (till middle of 1957) of land have been brought under this method of cultivation.

The main features of this method are:—

(i) raised nurseries for seedlings;

(ii) low seed rate for nurseries;

(iii) heavy manuring of the crop both in nurseries and in the field;

(iv) transplantation of fewer seedlings per bunch;

(v) transplanting in rows; and

(vi) adequate interculturing and proper weeding.

It is also necessary that the soil is fairly good and supply of water assured.

This method has been introduced in the transplanting tract as well as in the drilled paddy tract with a slight modification of adopting dibbling of seeds at a fixed distance. This dibbling method is very popular with the cultivators and has considerably helped in increasing output of paddy per acre.

With a view to accelerating the adoption of this method by farmers, a new scheme called Paddy "Pilot Scheme" has been introduced (1957) in Karvir, Panhala areas of this district. Under this scheme additional 10,000 acres of land (divided into suitable blocks) are to be brought under this method. Co-operative societies are to provide the additional finance required by the cultivator, even to a non-credit worthy cultivator who becomes a member of the society and undertakes to repay the loan on harvesting the crop. Fertilisers are also made easily available. Special staff is appointed for demonstrating the method in each village of the block. It is hoped this scheme will succeed in bringing sufficient acreage under this method.

Rice is eaten daily by almost all people in the district. It is taken usually in boiled form. Parched paddy in the form of *lahi* and *kurmura* is consumed on a large scale. It is also used for making *poha* large quantities of which are sent outside.

Jvari.

Jvari (jowar) seems to have yielded place to rice as the most widely grown cereal in Kolhapur. Even then, the crop stands second amongst all the crops grown in the district and occupied an area of 1,47,887 acres in the year 1955-56. The crop is grown all over the district except in Bavada mahal. The two talukas of Hatkanangle and Shirol together occupied nearly fifty per cent. of the area under jowar. These talukas have been in the forefront in so far as improvements in the

methods of cultivation of this crop are concerned. The method of drilling is being fast replaced by the dibbling method. It has resulted in increasing the yield of jowar to the tune of fifty per cent. or more over its normal yield.

Jvari.

Jowar seems to be the staple food crop of the eastern sub-divisions, cultivation of the crop being concentrated in the above two talukas. The area under the crop in the talukas of the western zone viz., Ajra, Bavada, Bhudargad, Panhala, Radhanagari and Shahuwadi hardly exceeds 14 per cent. of the total area under this crop. There are numerous varieties of jowar, some of which belong to the early and others to the late harvest. The early varieties are sown on light types of soil, mainly for fodder purposes and, if the season is favourable, grain is also taken. The late varieties are sown in good deep black soils or in irrigated lands; their yield is abundant though the grain is rough and unpalatable to animals. The main early varieties grown are *araged* and *kolbondi*. This latter variety is also sown for fodder purposes in April under irrigation. It is ready for harvest in June-July. This crop is called *hundi*. The main variety grown is, however. *gid-gap*, which has two further varieties namely *jambul bondi* (purple husked) and *tambad bondi* (red husked). Sowing of *kharif* jowar is done in the months of June and July; harvesting is done in November onwards. The stem of the gid-gap is about 6 to 7 feet high with large packed ear-heads. If irrigation facilities are available, this crop is sometimes irrigated, especially at the time of grain formation. The average yield of grain per acre is about 800 lbs.

Rabi jowar is generally sown in September-October and harvested in the months of February-March. The area under *rabi* jowar is rather insignificant. The denuded areas along the banks of the rivers are best suited to this crop which yields about 300 lbs per acre. There are two varieties grown viz., "*gund*" (*dagadi*) or with compact ear-head and the other with loose ear-head, both of which mature with a difference of about 15 days. The *gund* variety needs good soil and sufficient moisture; the seed rate for both these varieties is about 10 lbs. per acre. The Department of Agriculture has introduced an improved variety of *rabi* jowar in the district, namely, the Maldandi-35-1; its ear-head is loose but a big one. It matures earlier by about a fortnight than the local variety. The fodder of *shalu* jowar is of better quality than that of *kharif* jowar.

Jowar is used for preparing bread. Next to rice it is a staple food of the people in the district. A special variety of jowar is known as *kavali* with black gloom and its small grain is parched and eaten.

Bajri.

It will be evident from the table that *bajri* (spiked millet) is not an important crop of the district. Most of the area under this crop is to be found in the talukas of Shirol and Hatkanangle.

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation. CEREALS. Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation. *Bajri.*

Only one kind of *bajri* is grown. It is a finer grain than jowar and grows on light types of soil. No special preparatory tillage is given. It is usually sown in July and harvested in October. After sowing, interculturing is carried out by means of a hœ. Fair rains in August are favourable for its growth. Occasionally the crop is manured with farm-yard manure. No irrigation is given. It grows well when the climate is moderately dry.

Bajri is usually taken as a mixed crop and sown with pulses and also with *kharif* jowar in parts of Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas. The yield of *bajri* in the district is poor, the normal yield being about 330 lbs. per acre. It is sparingly used as food. *Bajri* stalks are a very poor cattle feed. However, they are often mixed with jowar *kadbi* and used as fodder.

Gahu.

Gahu (wheat) is taken as a cold weather (*rabi*) crop in the district. It is grown all over the district though in the talukas of Bavada, Ajra and Bhudargad the acreage is negligible. The talukas of Hatkanangle, Shirol and Shahuwadi taken together occupied more than 60 per cent. of the area.

Wheat is sown in the month of November-December and harvested in February-March. It is mainly an irrigated crop and is grown as a second crop after paddy. Sowing is done by dibbling, by maintaining a uniform distance of three or four inches in between. Only one variety (*khapli*) occupies most of the area under the crop in the district. It requires about 10-12 irrigations at intervals of eight or ten days and responds quite well to doses of sulphate of ammonia or manure mixtures. The average yield of wheat in the district varies from 600 lbs. to 1,200 lbs. Wheat is generally ground into flour for preparing bread.

Recently, improved varieties of wheat have been introduced in the district, viz., Niphad-4 and Kenphad-4.

Maka.

Maka (maize) is not a staple food of the district. Out of the total area of 10,290 acres of land under this crop in 1955-56, the talukas of Shahuwadi, Panhala and Shirol taken together had more than 50 per cent. of the acreage under this crop. This crop is grown throughout the year under irrigation. It is taken as a mixed crop with turmeric crop in Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas and with sugarcane all over the district. In the western zone of the district, this crop is taken specially for its grain. The green cobs (*batas*) are usually parched or boiled and eaten. They are exported from the district on a large scale. The yield of grain per acre is about 1,100 lbs. The grain is used for making bread after turning it into flour.

Nagli.

Nagli or *nachani* (ragi) occupied third place among the cereal crops in the district in 1955-56. Though it is grown in all the talukas, Ajra Mahal had the largest acreage under

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Nagli.

this crop followed by Bhudargad, Gadhinglaj, Radhanagari and Shahuwadi talukas which receive heavy rainfall. Thus *nagli* is purely a rain-fed crop and is grown on the hill slopes of these talukas. The plant of *nagli* is very hardy and grows well in poor uplands which are too shallow and steep and cannot be converted into terraced level plots required for paddy. Seedlings are raised on *rabbed* seed-beds on the hill slopes in the month of June. The land is prepared by ploughing or even hand digging after sufficient precipitation. When the seedlings are about four weeks old, they are transplanted in furrows opened by a light plough usually drawn by hand. Where the hill slopes are too steep for transplanting the whole area is burnt, prepared by hand tools, and *nagli* seed is then broadcast. It ripens in November. It responds very favourably to fish manuring. The normal yield per acre is about 600 lbs. When the crop is ready, ear-heads are sometimes taken off leaving the stalks. *Nagli* is the main food of poor people in the western zone of the district.

Rale.

Rale (Italian millet) is chiefly grown in the talukas of Kagal and Karvir where it occupies about 70 per cent. of the total area under this crop in the district, though it is grown in other talukas also except Bavada and Shahuwadi. It is grown on black soil as well as on slopy lands receiving sufficient rainfall. It is sown in June-July and harvested in October-November. The normal yield per acre comes to about 200 lbs. The grain is separated from husk by pounding and is cooked like boiled-rice for eating.

Vari.

Vari (varai) is a minor cereal grown in the district though the area reported under this crop in 1955-56 was fairly large. It is mainly grown in the talukas of Shahuwadi, Bavada, Radhanagari and Bhudargad usually on light soils and on hill slopes. The crop is sown in June-July and harvested in November. Treatments like irrigation and manuring are not given to this crop. The yield per acre is about 150 lbs. The grain is separated from the husk by pounding in a *gharata* and eaten only on fasting days, after boiling it like rice.

Sava.

Sava is another minor millet grown on large scale in the district covering an area of about 20,580 acres of land in 1955-56. The talukas of Ajra, Bhudargad and Gadhinglaj occupied nearly sixty per cent. of the area under the crop in the district. It is sown on lighter soils in June-July and is ready in November. The normal yield per acre is 150 lbs.

PULSES.

PULSES OCCUPIED LITTLE MORE THAN 5·5 PER CENT. of the gross cropped area in Kolhapur district in 1955-56. The following table shows the pulses crops taken out in the district and the cultivated area under each of them:—

TABLE No. 18.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER PULSES IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka	Gram	Green Gram or Mug	Tur (Arhar)	Black Gram or Urad (Mash).	Horse Gram.	Masur	Math	Val	Chavli	Waiana	Other Pulses	Total Pulses
Ajra ..	99	..	447	198	1,492	8	..	82	8	154	..	2,488
Bavada ..	...	..	8	60	4	3	..	26	..	11	..	112
Bhudargad ..	44	..	449	232	386	5	..	60	..	305	..	1,481
Gadhinglaj ..	514	58	2,614	472	1,893	..	23	20	21	118	28	5,761
Hatkanangle ..	1,302	23	5,206	1,006	696	..	223	226	18	2	..	8,792
Kagal ..	312	14	2,216	1,461	1,031	6	..	49	60	685	..	5,834
Karvir ..	440	6	1,772	1,070	951	10	..	105	12	1,175	171	5,712
Panhala ..	452	5	747	562	246	18	..	87	21	656	2	2,796
Radhanagari ..	47	..	123	100	91	78	..	409	2	885	....	1,735
Shahuwadi ..	1,291	..	233	140	144	81	..	..	2	535	511	2,937
Shirol ..	4,396	587	5,176	29	2,627	1	462	768	..	..	..	14,046
District Total ..	8,987	693	18,991	5,330	9,561	210	708	1,832	144	4,526	712	51,694

PULSES.

Turi.

Turi (pigeon pea) is the most important pulse crop of the district and occupies an area of little more than thirty-five per cent. of the total area under pulse crops. The talukas of Shirol and Hatkanangle occupied about fifty-five per cent. of the total area under the crop. It is sown in June-July and harvested in January-February. Usually, it is sown as a mixed crop with groundnut or jowar. It is also taken as a border crop on the bunds of rice fields. Flowering and fruiting continues for several days (extending over two months), thus, allowing several pickings of ripe pods for the plant bears green pods and ripe pods simultaneously. Though it is a perennial plant, it is pulled out after one cropping. The normal yield per acre is 630 lbs. The green pods are eaten as a vegetable and ripe *turi* is split up and eaten boiled in a variety of ways. It is also sometimes, eaten, mixed with vegetables.

Kulthi.

Kulthi, Kulith (horse gram) held second place among the pulse crops in the district. Though it is grown all over the district, the talukas of Shirol, Ajra, Gandhinglaj and Kagal together held more than seventy per cent. of the area under the crop. It is sown in June-July and harvested in December. It is sown generally as a mixed crop with bajri on lighter soils. On *varkas* land, it is taken as a single crop. The average yield per acre is about 250 lbs. if taken as a single crop, and about 100 lbs. if taken as a mixed crop. The whole pulse is given to horses after boiling. It is also eaten in soup and porridge.

Harbhara.

Harbhara (*gram*) is a largely grown pulse crop in the district and stood next only to *turi* and *kulith* in 1955-56. It is cultivated all over the district except the Bavada taluka. Shirol and Hatkanangle talukas alone held more than sixty-three per cent. of the total area under this crop. For healthy growth, gram requires good soil. It is grown as a second crop in the district after rice and bajri. It is sown in October-November and harvested in February. One or two irrigations are given in the eastern talukas where it is largely grown. The average yield per acre is about 330 lbs. Under dry farming and about 1,000 lbs. under irrigation. It is a common practice to pluck off the tops of the shoots before flowering to enable them to be strong and bushy so as to increase the outturn of grain. The tender leaf of this crop is used as a vegetable. Gram is eaten green and when ripe, it is broken into pulse. Gram is a staple food of horse. The plants yield a kind of vinegar known as *amb* which gathers on the plants at night and soaks the cloth which is laid over them. This is generally used as a medicine by cultivators against stomach-ache.

Udid.

Udid (black gram) is grown all over the district, though the talukas of Kagal, Hatkanangle and Karvir together occupied more than fifty-five per cent. of the total area under this crop in 1955-56. It is generally sown in June as a mixed crop with bajri or *kharif* jowar and harvested in November. The yield

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PULSES. Udid.

per acre is about 1,500 lbs. The ripe pulse is split and consumed as *dal*. It is ground to powder to be made into *papads*.

The crop is also used in certain parts of the district for green manuring of the tobacco crop. When the crop is tender and about one and half months old, it is buried in the ground while preparing the land.

Vatana.

Vatana (field pea) is grown all over the district though Karvir taluka reported the highest acreage under this crop in 1955-56. It is a very favourite pulse crop, grown invariably after the harvest of rice crop in areas having sufficient moisture in the soil. It is taken as a dry crop. Seeds are sown in November in the furrows through a single tube attached to the plough. The crop is harvested in January-February. The yield per acre of the *vatana* crop comes to about 250 lbs. Green pods are used as a vegetable. The pulse is used either whole or split.

Val.

Val (large-fruited-dolichos) is grown all over the district as a mixed crop or as a border crop. It is also taken as a second crop after the harvest of the rice crop. It yields about 100 lbs. of gram per acre. The pulse is eaten, both whole or split, cooked in various ways. The husks and broken bits or the *dal* are a valuable concentrate for milch cattle. The leaves and stalks are also utilised as fodder.

Mug.

Mug (green gram) is a minor pulse and occupies a negligible area in the district. It is chiefly grown in Shirol taluka. It is sown in June and July as a mixed crop with bajri and harvested in September. The normal yield per acre is 250 lbs.

Chavli

Chavli (small-fruited-dolichos) is a minor crop and is grown as a mixed crop with groundnut, jowar, bajri etc. It is sown in June-July and harvested in October. The normal yield of the pulse per acre is 150 lbs. The green pods of *chavli* are about five to six inches long and when tender are used as a vegetable. They are eaten raw or are cooked. The ripe grain is used as a pulse and eaten after boiling.

Oilseeds.

AREA UNDER OILSEEDS' CULTIVATION in Kolhapur district shows considerable increase in recent years. It was about six per cent. of the gross cropped area when the Gazetteer of Kolhapur State was first compiled and about thirteen per cent. in 1955-56. The oils of some seeds are solely used in cooking, of some both in cooking and for burning, of some for burning and in medicine and of some in medicines only. Edible oilseeds occupied most of the area cultivated. The following table shows the distribution of acreage under various oilseeds in different talukas of the district:—

TABLE No. 19.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER OILSEEDS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Edible Oil Seeds.						Non-edible Oil Seeds.				Total Oil Seeds.
	Groundnut.	Coconut	Sesamum.	Safflower	Others.	Total Edible Oil Seeds.	Linseed.	Castor.	Niger Seed.	Total Non-edible Oil Seeds.	
Ajra ..	5,644	.	.	.	.	5,644	.	..	733	733	6,377
Bavada .	2	.	.	..		2	..	..	533	533	535
Bhudargad ..	4,314	..	.	.		4,314	..	..	773	773	5.087
Gadhinglaj .	16,859	..	40	12	.	16,911	..	..	123	123	17,034
Hatkanangle ..	25,099	2	2	45	.	25,148	1	4	35	40	25,188
Kagal ..	18,737	..	.	..	..	18,737	..	2	27	29	18,766
Karvir ..	10,849	.	..	12	.	10,861	..	.	22	22	10,883
Panhala ..	7,207	..	4	.	..	7,211	..	..	147	147	7,358
Radhanagari	2,741	..		..	.	2,741	..		1,145	1,145	3,886
Shahuwadi .	5,202	.	..	.	606	58,08	.	..	..	..	5,808
Shirol ..	17,324	..	1	378	..	17,703	..	10	18	28	17,731
District Total .	1,13,978	2	47	417	606	1,15,080	1	16	3,556	3,573	1,18,653

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OILSEEDS.

Bhuimug.

Bhuimug (groundnut) is the most important oilseed grown in the district and occupied about ninety-seven per cent. of the total area under oilseeds. It is grown all over the district excepting Ajra taluka, the talukas of Hatkanangle, Kagal, Gadhinglaj and Shirol occupying much of the area under the crop. It is sown in June-July and harvested in November-December. The common method of sowing followed throughout the district is hand-dibbling. Two varieties are grown, namely, erect and spreading. Only farm yard manure is given, if available. The normal yield per acre per year is 1,500 lbs. The improved varieties that have been recommended are the Kopergaon No. 1 and Kopergaon No. 3. These improved varieties give better yield and the percentage of oil in them is more than in the local ones. Ripe nuts are consumed by oil mills in the district itself. Groundnut is eaten particularly on fasting days and also eaten on other days, often salted.

Karadai.

Karadai (*safflower*) is a minor oilseed and grown only in Shirol taluka. It is generally grown on lighter types of soils as a border crop of *rabi* jowar and gram and seldom as an entire crop on lighter types of soils. It is sown in October-November and harvested in January-February. The normal yield per acre is about 250 lbs. Tender leaves of safflower plants are used as a vegetable. The oil extracted from the seed is used for cooking purposes.

Karale.

Karale (niger), also called *khurasani*, is grown in the district on lighter types of soils. It is not grown only in Shahuwadi taluka. The areas of concentrated cultivation are Bhudargad, Ajra, Radhanagari and Bavada talukas. It is sown in June-July and harvested in November. It is the last crop taken on *varkas* land, which is left fallow afterwards for a period of four or five years to restore its fertility. It is also sown as a border crop of groundnut. It is grown without irrigation and manure. The normal yield is 250 lbs. per acre. A clear, limped, pale, yellow, sweet-oil is expected from the niger-seed. The seed is also used in *chutnies*.

Other Oilseeds.

There are other oilseeds like *javas* or *alshi* (linseed), *erand* (castor), *shiras* (rapeseed) etc., which are grown in the district sporadically and on a negligible scale. They are of minor importance.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS OCCUPIED about four per cent. of the gross cropped area in the district in 1955-56. Only two crops under this head have been reported, namely tobacco and betel leaves. The following table gives the acreage under each of these crops in each taluka of the district in 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 20.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Tobacco.	Betel Leaves.	Total Drugs and Narcotics.
Ajra	27	....	27
Bavada	..	....	....
Bhudargad	5	....	5
Gadhinglaj	5,384	48	5,432
Hatkanangle	8,977	269	9,246
Kagal	5,576	66	5,642
Karvir	987	13	1,000
Panhala	10	4	14
Radhanagari	3	....	3
Shahuwadi	26	...	26
Shirol	15,105	129	15,234
District Total	36,100	529	36,629

Tambaku.

Tambaku (tobacco) is an important cash crop of the district. It is grown mostly in the talukas of Shirol, Hatkanangle, Gadhinglaj and Kagal. In other talukas the area under cultivation is rather negligible.

Tobacco seed is sown in seed beds in June-July, preferably on manure heaps laid out in the fields. The seedlings are transplanted in the month of August. Prior to sowing, the soil is richly manured by farm yard manure, sheep folding, and green manure of sunn hemp or *udid* The distance between two plants and rows varies from three to three and half feet. The plant is not allowed to flower. All the buds and branches are ripped off as early as possible. The land is intercultured by means of entire blade hoes called *tambaku kulav*, every ten days, till the crop is harvested. Interculturing is done horizontally and vertically, to retain moisture in the ground. The plants are cut in January-February, about four inches above the ground, and dried in the sun. After sun curing, mid-ribs of tobacco leaves are removed by hands. The leaves are powdered and are then ready for sale. The district grows only *bidi* variety of tobacco. This tobacco is used for bidi-making on a large scale and, therefore, large quantities are exported from the district. This tobacco is also used for making snuff. The local variety,

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DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Panvel.

known as *akol*, is well-known in the market. A new variety of tobacco called S-20 has been evolved at Tobacco Research Station, Nipani, and is replacing the local variety.

Panvel (betel-leaf) is a garden crop and was grown only in six talukas, Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas together having most of the acreage under this crop in the district, in 1955-56. It is a vine and is grown in light, medium black and well drained soil. Heavy manuring and continuous irrigation are necessary. The vines continue to bear for ten to fifteen years, if carefully looked after. Each betel-leaf garden, called *pan mala*, generally covers about half an acre of land, depending upon the availability of water. The garden is laid out in beds (*wafas*) and 18 such beds cover one *chira*, which means nearly an area of one guntha. As they grow quickly, the trees of *shevri* and *pangora* are planted in advance one to four feet apart to support the vines which are later trained to support themselves on these trees. The whole garden has to be protected from wind and sun by high hedges or screens of grass or dried banana-leaves. The garden is irrigated only by well water. Banana suckers are also planted at each corner of the *chira*. The vines begin to bear in the third year and are at their best during fourth to tenth year and under favourable conditions, continue to yield for another four-five years. Every year in March, April and May, vines are coiled away and buried above root under fresh soil, preferably the soil brought from the *mah* lands on the banks of the rivers; manure is also given.

A betel-leaf garden requires sizeable investment in initial stages. Considerable care has to be taken throughout the year in weeding, watering, picking and killing of insects and pests. Cultivation of betel-leaf is more remunerative than that of any other garden crop in the district. Betel leaves are exported to Poona and Bombay. The betel-leaf is used by all classes of people for chewing.

SUGARCANE.

SUGARCANE OCCUPIES AN IMPORTANT PLACE in the economy of the district as it is the most important cash crop of the district. The total area under this crop has increased considerably in recent years as against only 9,900 acres reported by *Kolhapur State Gazetteer* (1886). The following figures show how the area under this crop has increased in recent years:—

Year.	Area in acres.
1949-50	32,300
1950-51	38,300
1951-52	46,700
1952-53	44,300
1953-54	37,300
1954-55	44,400
1955-56	48,361

The sugarcane crop requires plenty of water supply. The increase in area under the crop is mainly due to increased irrigation facilities in recent years, namely, *pacca* bandharas and co-operative lift irrigation societies. In fact, the entire acreage under sugarcane has been reported as irrigated in 1955-56.

Oos (sugarcane) is grown throughout the district. The four talukas of Karvir, Radhanagari, Panhala, and Hatkanangle, taken together occupied more than 60 per cent. of the total area under the crop in 1955-56. The following table shows talukawise distribution of the area under sugarcane in that year:—

TABLE No. 21.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER SUGAR CROPS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Sugarcane.	Other sugars.	Total sugars.
Ajara	857	....	857
Bavada	926	...	926
Bhudargad	3,925	...	3,925
Gadhinglaj	2,080	....	2,980
Hatkanangle	6,725	....	6,725
Kagal	4,114	....	4,114
Karvir	12,687	..	12,687
Panhala	5,457	....	5,457
Radhanagari	6,212	....	6,212
Shahuwadi	2,122	...	2,122
Shirol	2,356	...	2,356
District Total ..	48,301	....	48,361

Sugarcane crop is a twelve month crop and is planted in the month of December-January. The land is ploughed thrice after the harvest of paddy crop and farm yard manure or town compost is applied at the rate of 30 to 40 cart loads per acre. Before planting furrows are made at a distance of two and half to three feet for irrigation. Sugarcane sets are then planted by pressing under the feet. Sulphate of ammonia is applied before planting the sets, as it helps germination. Top dressing of sulphate of ammonia is given after about a month and a half or two months after weeding and first earthing up (*bal bharani*). Another top dressing of sulphate or oil cake is given at the time of final earthing up in May. In all about 200 lbs. of nitrogen is given in the form of sulphate of ammonia. This is called plant (*suru*) cane.

The *ratoon* cane is also taken in the district extensively; two *ratoons* are invariably taken and, at times four to five or even about seven to eight *ratoons* are taken. After the harvesting of sugarcane crop, the stems left in the soil germinate in about three weeks' time. The furrows are broken on both the sides, and farm yard manure or town compost is added. Sulphate of ammonia or oil cake is also applied and the open furrows are again made up. Watering is done thereafter. In this way, the *ratoon* crop is taken year after year without disturbing the soil fertility. The cost of seed and cultivation is also saved to a certain extent.

There is no *adsali* sugarcane cultivation in Kolhapur as is followed in the Deccan canal tracts because of heavy rainfall conditions obtaining in some parts of the district. As such this method of planting cane crop has been replaced by the *rajooing* method. In this method, sugarcane sets, having about five to six eye buds, are planted erect in a nursery in the month of July. About four-five eye buds are kept above the ground. The land is ploughed and laid out in furrows before monsoon. The land so prepared is again laid in furrows in the month of August-September, depending upon rainfail conditions, by breaking the furrows already prepared. The germinated sets from the nursery bed are then taken out and sets containing one germinated eye bud are selected for transplanting in the furrows. This transplanting is done in the month of September. The crop takes full fifteen months to mature as against eighteen months in the Deccan canal tracts. The yield per acre under this method is, at least, twenty-five per cent. more compared to that of plant (*suru*) and *ratoon* cane grown in the district. However, this practice is followed by the sugar factories only.

The sugarcane crop exhausts the soil almost completely and, therefore, fertility of the soil has to be maintained by heavy manuring or crop rotations. In this district, sugarcane is rotated with rice. Progressive cultivators of the district are adopting improved method or schedule recommended by Padegaon Research Station

The local variety of sugarcane, namely, *pundia* is grown only in a few places far away in the interior. The improved variety, namely, Co. 419 is grown throughout the district and covers most of the area under the sugarcane in the district. This cane, in addition to being high yielding, can stand drought conditions much better than any other cane. The Co. 475 variety, which was introduced in the district and gave better performance than the Co. 419, has been withdrawn due to its high susceptibility to rust and smut diseases. The current variety of cane is hard to crush and as such all over the district power crushers are used for the purpose. Padegaon Research Station has released two improved strains of sugarcane namely,

SUGARCANE.

Co. 775 and Co. 678, which are under trial in the district. It is likely that Co. 775 may replace Co. 419 because of higher sugar percentage. Its habit of growth is erect.

Sugarcane is used for chewing; its juice is also extracted for drinking. However, bulk of the crop is used for preparing *gul* and white sugar. The jaggery of Kolhapur is well-known not only in the State but all over India. The recovery percentage (of sugar) is also the highest in India (about fourteen per cent). At present (1957) there is only one sugar factory in Kolhapur district, though there are plans to start more factories on a co-operative basis.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES hardly occupied two per cent. of total gross cropped area in Kolhapur district in 1955-56. The following table shows talukawise acreage under these crops:--

TABLE No. 22.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka	Chillies.	Tur-meric.	Corian-der.	Garlic.	Fenug-reek (Methi.)	Other Condi-ments and Spices.	Total Condi-ments and Spices.
Ajara ..	539	..	2	3	..	..	544
Bavada ..	3	..	..	..	..	..	3
Bhudargad ..	223	..	..	..	..	.	223
Gadhinglaj ..	3,217	19	27	16	..	4	3,283
Hatkanangle ..	2,744	1,255	16	10	.	..	4,025
Kagal .	2,994	30	2	1	..	..	3,027
Karvir ..	1,266	43	2	3	9	..	1,323
Panhala ..	998	27	..	1	.	..	1,026
Radhanagari ..	166	.		.	..	..	166
Shahuwadi ..	91	.	..	..	.	.	91
Shirol ..	2,021	234	7	10	..	..	2,272
District Total..	14,262	1,608	56	44	9	4	15,983

Mirchi.

Mirchi (chilly) occupied (1955-56) first place amongst the spice crops grown in the district, and is also an important cash crop of the district next, of course, to sugarcane, tobacco and ground nut. Though it is grown throughout the district, concentrated cultivation is to be found only in the talukas of Kagal, Hatkanangle, Gadhinglaj and Shirol. Seedlings are

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CONDIMENTS AND SPICES

Mirchi.

raised in seedbeds by the end of May and are transplanted after about a month i.e., in June. The distance between the two rows and between the two plants varies from two to three feet, depending on the quality of the soil. The plant begins to bear fruit after about two months. The irrigated crop lasts longer than the unirrigated crop. Though chillies are grown to a large extent as an entire crop, in parts of Kagal, Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas it is also taken with cotton as a mixed crop. In the month of August the cotton seed is dibbled in between every two plants of chilly. Only one variety, namely, *Sankeswari* is grown throughout the district.

Chillies form part of the people's daily food. It is the chief element used in curries and most other dishes. They are extensively used in *chutneys* and pickles. They also have some medicinal value.

Halad.

Halad (turmeric) is grown mainly in Hatkanangle taluka and the cropped area in the taluka occupied more than seventy-five per cent. of the total area under this crop in the district in 1955-56. In the talukas of Shirol, Gandhinglaj, Kagal, Karvir and Panhala and in certain other villages it is grown on a small scale. It is planted in the month of May before monsoon sets in, on both the sides of the furrows about 2 feet apart and is harvested in December-January. It is manured with farm yard manure at the rate of about 30 to 40 cart loads per acre. Turmeric rhizomes are universally used as a condiment, being the chief constituent of curry powder.

Kothimbir.

Kothimber (coriander) is grown in the district as a garden crop in small quantities throughout the year. In 1955-56 its cultivation was concentrated in Gadhinglaj and Hatkanangle talukas. It is cultivated both for the sake of its seed and for its green leaves. The leaves are ready for use in about three weeks' time and the seed in about two months' time. The leaves and tender stems are used as a vegetable and also for flavouring many dishes. The coriander seed is a condiment and also contains some medicinal properties.

Lasun.

Lasun (garlic) is grown throughout the district in small areas. Its cultivation is, however concentrated in Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas. It is grown as a side crop of onion. It is planted in November and harvested in February-March. It is extensively used as a condiment or as a spice in *chutneys*, in seasoning vegetables and in curries. It also possesses certain medicinal properties.

Miscellaneous.

The other condiments and spices grown in the district are *methi* (fenugreek). *ova* (ajwanseed), *badishep* (sweet-fennel), and *shepu* (fennel). They are grown on a very small scale. Most of these crops are taken as side crops e.g., of groundnut.

FIBRES.

THE TOTAL AREA UNDER FIBRE PLANTS was hardly one per cent. of the gross cropped area in 1955-56. The following table gives the distribution of acreage under various fibres in Kolhapur district: —

TABLE No. 23.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER FIBRES IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka	Cotton (Variety-wise).	Sann-Hemp (Bombay Hemp).	Ambadi (Deccan Hemp).	Ghayal.	Other Fibres.	Total Fibres.
Ajara ..	23	..	145	..	..	168
Bavada ..	.	..	..	..		..
Bhudargad ..	41	..	11	..	.	52
Gadhinglaj ..	1,744	179	205	..	..	2,128
Hatkanangle ..	1,237	155	8	..	..	1,400
Kagal ..	837	38	30	1	..	935
Karvir ..	20	127	122	.	.	278
Panhala ..	19	122	11	..	.	152
Radhanagari ..	..	.	5	.	..	5
Shahuwadi ..	..	..	5	..	2	7
Shirol ..	4,943	18	22	.	..	4,983
District Total .	8,873	639	503	1	2	10.108

Kapashi.

Kapashi (cotton) occupied eighty per cent. of the total area under fibres in 1955-56 in the district. The talukas growing this crop on a large scale are Shirol, Kagal, Gadhinglaj and Hatkanangle. The area under cotton has decreased much since the compilation of the last Gazetteer. Cotton is grown in the district as a mixed crop with chillies. It is sown in August: picking starts in December-January. The variety grown is the improved *Jayadhar*. The long staple variety of cotton, namely, *Rajpalayam* has been introduced in Shirol, Hatkanangle and Gadhinglaj talukas.

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FIBRES.

Ambadi.

Ambadi (Deccan Hemp) is grown almost all over the district on a small scale. Gadhinglaj, Ajra and Kagal talukas are major producers. It is sown in June-July and harvested in December. The bark of *ambadi* plant yields good fibre which is used for making ropes. The tender leaves of the plant find an extensive use as a pot-herb and vegetable.

Tag.

Tag (sann-hemp), though a fibre crop, is grown in the district specially for green manuring of the fields. Most of the area under this crop was in Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangle, Karvir and Panhala talukas in 1955-56. It is sown in June-July and harvested in September. As a green manure, the crop is buried in the ground by plough when it is about five weeks old or when it just starts flowering.

Sann.

Sann fibres are at their best when the plants are flowering and when the setting of pods commences. The stalks are either cut close to the round with sickles or are uprooted. They are exposed for a few days on the bunds of the fields, when the leaves are stripped off and then they are ready for retting. The stalks are tied in bundles and placed upright in water for three or four days. Since the bark on the butt ends is thicker than on the upper portion of the plant, the former need a longer time to ret. The bundles are then horizontally submerged in water with the help of some weight like stones, etc. Retting to be complete requires about seven to ten days, depending on the condition of water and weather. If the stalks are retted for longer time than the required period, the fibres lose their strength and colour.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, FRUITS ARE GROWN on a very small scale and occupied hardly one per cent. of gross cropped area in 1955-56. A few fruit gardens of banana and guava are seen mainly in the eastern portion. A few permanent gardens of mangoes and cashewnuts can also be seen. The following table shows the distribution of area under fruits in the district in 1955-56: —

TABLE No. 24.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER FRESH FRUITS, CASHEWNUT AND OTHER DRY FRUITS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Fresh Fruits.						Dry Fruits.		Total Fruits
	Banana.	Mango.	Lime.	Guava.	Other fresh fruits.	Total fresh fruits.	Cashewnut.	Total dry fruits.	Fresh & Dry.
Ajara ..	4	.	..	..	..	4	10	10	14
Bavada ..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	1
Bhudargad ..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
Gadhinglaj .	21	19	.	1	6	47	385	395	432
Hatkanangle ..	64	18	3	23	3	111	..	..	111
Kagal ..	9	3	.	..	..	12	..	..	12
Karvir ..	8	7	16	10	..	41	..	..	41
Panhala .	8	3	.	..	..	11	..	..	11
Radhanagari ..	1	4	..	..	..	5	..	..	5
Shahuwadi	2	3	..	..	4	9	..	..	9
Shirol ..	39	..	..	54	..	93	..	..	93
District Total ..	157	57	19	89	13	335	395	395	730

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FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Banana and guava are the common fruits of the district. Most of the fruits are grown throughout the district on irrigated garden lands, though production is concentrated in Gadhinglaj, Hatkanangle and Shirol talukas.

Kele.

Kele (Banana) is a very popular fruit of the district. Hatkanangle, Shirol and Gadhinglaj talukas are the major producers. Banana is grown on good garden, medium black soil which is at least two feet deep. It is propagated by suckers which are planted in June-July. After the rains are over, the plants are irrigated at intervals of 10-12 days, depending on moisture in the soil, and at intervals of a week in the hot season. The plants are manured once a year at the rate of one to two basket-full of farm yard manure per plant. The district grows mainly the *Walha* variety. Of the other varieties grown, *velchi* is taken as a mixed crop in betel vines; a few plants of *mhas-keles,* used for vegetable purposes, are also planted in the gardens.

Amba.

Amba (mango) is cultivated throughout the district as a fruit crop on waste lands. The mango of Ajra is a well-known variety. The mango groves planted and developed at the instance of the late *Jahagirdar* of Ichhalkaranji also need a particular mention. Besides the well-known varieties of Alphonso (*apus*) and *payari,* there are other important local varieties also. The mango plant bears fruits after ten years. if it is propogated from the mango stone, and after five years, if it is propagated vegetatively by grafting. For its good growth watering is essential for the first three years. Regular manuring is also equally good for its growth and regular fruiting. Flowering starts by the beginning of December and ends by January. There are three flowering flushes in mango. The fruit is ready for harvest in April-May.

Peru.

Peru (Guava) is grown mostly in Shirol taluka though Hatkanangle and Karvir talukas also grow it to some extent Guava trees begin to bear fruit when about four to five years old. There are two flowering seasons. The fruits of the first season ripen in August-September and those of the second in November-December. The local variety is most common though attempts are being made to extend the area under Lucknow-49 variety.

Papai.

Papai (papaya) is grown as an inter-crop in banana cultivation. It is planted either along the borders or in-between the two rows of banana plants. Papaya is propogated by seedlings. Seedlings are raised on seed beds. Seedlings are transplanted in September-October six to eight inches apart. Two seedlings are planted at one place. This is because usually about fifty per cent. of the plants turn out to be males and hence it is necessary to plant two plants. These male plants are useless except as pollenisers and hence only a few male plants are

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES. Papai.

retained in the orchard. The rest are removed as soon as the sex is ascertained. The trees begin to flower after about six to eight months of planting and fruiting begins after about a year. The life of the plant is about three years. A papaya tree, on an average, yields about 30 lbs. of papayas. The ripe fruit is eaten while the unripe fruit is used as a vegetable.

Citrus Fruits.

In Kolhapur district the area under citrus fruits is almost insignificant. The varieties grown are sweet oranges (*mosambi*) and lime (*kagadi limbu*) and Italian lemon at various places. Citrus trees are usually planted on medium black or light loamy soil. As they are very sentitive to poor drainage, they are not planted in soils which are either highly moisture retentive (like deep black soils) or are likely to become water-logged. Seedling of *Jamburi* are raised for about a year in the nursery beds. The budded plants are transplanted in orchards during the monsoon season. The distance between the two plants depends upon the variety and varies from 15 to 20 feet. The trees are irrigated regularly at an interval of 10 to 15 days, depending upon the season. The plantations are treated either for *ambe* or *mrig behar*.

Kaju.

Kaju (cashew-nut) is grown mostly in Gadhinglaj taluka. It thrives well in laterite soil. It is grown from seed (nut) planted in *situ*. The roots when young are very sensitive and do not stand transplanting. The plant bears fruits after six to eight years. Flowering starts in November-December and fruits are ready for harvest in March-April, yielding on an average about 10 lbs. of nuts per plant.

Miscellaneous.

Besides these, the district grows other fruits like pine-apple, *ramphal*, *sitaphal*, *chiku* and grapes, though on a very small scale. Some of them are grown by persons who have taken to fruit gardening as a hobby. *Ananas* (pine-apple) is grown on a very small scale as it thrives well only in hot moist climate.* *Ramphal* (bullock's heart) is grown mainly in garden lands as a border plant and near homesteads. *Sitaphal* (custard apple) has only one season, namely, during August-December. It is grown as a border plant. *Draksha* (grapes) does not thrive well though attempts are being made to grow this fruit in the district. The climate of eastern zone is said to be more suitable for this crop. A plot of about 10 *gunthas* in Koulav village in Radhanagari taluka is under this fruit crop. Only one variety, namely, *bhokri* is grown in the district.

Kolhapur district is not self-sufficient as regards vegetables which accounted for a very small area of the gross cropped area in the district. The following table shows the distribution of the acreage under vegetables in the district in 1955-56:—

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TABLE No 25.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER VEGETABLES IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka	Potato	Sweet Patato	Onion	Carrot	Radish	Cabbage	Brinjal	Tomato	Fenug-reek	Bhendi (Ladies Finger)	Other Vege-tables	Total Vege-tables
Ajra ..	6	31	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	40
Bavada ..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhudargad ..	2	4	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16
Gadhinglaj ..	11	76	24	6	..	1	42	..	..	..	20	180
Hatkanangle. ..	2	76	34	9	3	3	113	23	4	1	9	277
Kagal ..	2	10	33	3	7	1	107	1	2	1	..	176
Karvir ..	2	48	31	2	..	10	234	32	..	7	24	390
Panhala ..	..	125	18	4	.	..	46	..	..	..	12	205
Radhanagari	2	50	44	.	..	39	6	..	..	..	100	241
Shahuwadi ..	.	49	58	7	..	31	23	..	..	..	..	168
Shirol ..	..	31	46	7	..	7	135	7	..	4	1	238
District Total ..	27	509	298	38	10	92	709	63	6	13	106	1,931

Most of the shortage of vegetables is made good by imports from Belgaum district and at times from Poona district. Besides the local varieties grown, a few foreign varieties, namely, cabbage, cauliflower, lattuce and knolkhol have been also introduced and have become quite popular in the district, particularly in parts of Karvir, Radhanagari, and Shahuwadi talukas.

Roots and Tubers.

The following seven root and tuber vegetables are grown in the district:—

Ratale.

Ratale (sweet potato) is the most important root vegetable grown in the district. *Ratale*, grown here, is of two varieties, namely, red and white. The white variety is more popular. Sweet potatoes can be grown at any time of the year. They are ready for harvest in about 6 month's time. Cuttings from vines of previous year are used for propogation. The crop needs heavy manuring and constant irrigation. The root is eaten green, boiled, or roasted on fasting days. The leaves are used as green fodder for cattle. *Ratale* is also imported in the district on large scale from Belgaum district.

Kanda.

Kanda (onion) is grown in good black soil in the district. It requires heavy manuring and watering. Red and white varieties are grown, the latter being more popular in the district. Onion seeds are sown on raised seedbeds to raise seedlings. Seedlings are ready in about a month's time for transplanting. They are transplanted on the slopes of the furrows. At the time of transplanting, there is standing water in the plot. Transplanting is done in November-December and the field is watered every week. In about 3-4 months time, the crop is ready for harvest. Onion is eaten almost by all classes both raw and otherwise. It is almost a necessity of the poorer classes. Tender leaves are eaten as a pot herb.

Batata.

Batata (potato) is grown on a very small area in the district under irrigation. Heavy manuring is necessary. Potato sets are planted in October-November. The crop is ready between January and February. It is watered as and when required. The district grows *numbri* (local variety) and red (from Belgaum) varieties. Potatoes are also imported from Belgaum and other districts to meet the local needs.

Gajar.

Gajar (carrot) is grown in good black soil on a small scale in the district. The crop needs manuring and watering. It is grown in garden lands in *rabi* season and is ready for use in about three months' time. The root is eaten as a vegetable. both raw and boiled. It is also used as a concentrate to feed plough and milch cattle.

Mula.

Mulu (radish) is grown on a very small scale throughout the year, particularly in *bagayat* lands, as a catch crop. It is harvested in about two months time. If harvesting is delayed, the plant begins to bear pods, called *dingris*. The roots, leaves and pods are used as a vegetable.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Roots and Tubers.

Suran.

Suran (elephant's foot) is grown in the western zone of the district as a backyard crop. The crop takes about three years for its full growth. The corm is used as a vegetable. However, this vegetable is not much popular.

Karanda.

Karanda is a bulb-bearing yam and resembles the common yam. It is grown in the western zone in backyards of houses. The flesh of the bulb has a slight bitter taste, which lessens on boiling.

The district also grows twelve fruit vegetables though not on a large scale. Among these vegetables brinjal, cabbage and tomato are prominent.

Vange.

Vange (brinjal) occupies the highest acreage not only under fruit vegetables but under all vegetables grown in the district. It is grown on rich soils, often on river bankc in *rabi* season after floods are over. In the gardens, it is grown throughout the year. It is an irrigated crop and requires considerable manuring also. Seedlings are prepared in seed beds and are transplanted after about six weeks. The crop gets ready after two months and harvesting continues for two months thereafter. It is a very common fruit vegetable and is consumed in the district throughout the year. Important varieties grown in the district are: green round small brinjal (*dorli*), big but entirely green in colour, and purple.

Belvange.

Belvange (tomato) is grown as a field crop only in four talukas. It requires heavy manuring, irrigation and constant care. Seedlings are prepared on raised seedbeds and, when four weeks old, are transplanted in October-November in the lands laid out in ridges and furrows. It is also grown in hot season if sufficient watering facilities are available. It is a very favourite vegetable with the people, particularly with those in urban areas. The raw fruit is used as a vegetable while the ripe one is eaten like a fruit.

Kobi.

Kobi (cabbage) is a much valued cold season foreign vegetable grown in the district. It is becoming more and more popular. Cabbage leaves are fed to the cattle and the heads are used as a vegetable.

Dodka.

Dodka (ridge gourd) is grown in the district in the rich lands which form the edges of other garden crops. It is rarely grown as a single crop. In the gardens, it is grown at any time of the year. In dry crop lands, it is grown in June-July. The plant begins to bear fruit in two months' time after planting and continues to bear for nearly two months more. The fruit is dark-green in colour and its length varies from six inches to eighteen inches. It is seemed with sharp ridges from one end to the other. The fruit is used as a vegetable. The skin and the ridges are used in *Chutneys*.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Roots and Tubers.

Dudhya Bhopla.

Dudhya Bhopla (bottle gourd) is a creeping plant and is grown in garden lands round the edges of the crop. Under irrigation it is also grown as an entire crop mixed with cucumbers. It begins to bear in two-three months' time. The fruit is yellowish-green and has a soft white flesh. It varies in length from 12" to 30". It is a very common vegetable. It is also utilised in preparing a sweet-meat called *dudhi-halva*.

Ghosale.

Ghosale (smooth-gourd) is grown and used like *dodka*. A *ghosale* is six to ten inches in length and is smooth and marked length-wise with lines. It yields heavily and continues to bear for two years, if constant irrigation is given.

Kalingad.

Kalingad (water melon) is the fruit of a creeper. It is sown in hot months and requires irrigation. The plants are manured when they are six weeks' old. The fruit ripens in the third or fourth month. The fruit is smooth and round, dark-green and striped with light green. The flesh is pink, very soft and watery and the seeds black and white. It is generally eaten raw.

Karle.

Karle (bitter gourd) is a small fruit and grown and used like *dodka* and *ghosale*. The surface of the fruit is roughened with knobs and each seed fills the whole cross section of the fruit. The fruit is used as a vegetable. It tastes bitter and, therefore, must be well cooked and spiced before eating.

Kartoli.

Kartoli is a wild gourd, but it is quite a favourite vegetable. It is grown in the western hilly tracts of the district.

Kashi-bhopla.

Kashi-bhopla or *kashi-phal* is grown in gardens and in backyards. Except that it is roundish and thick instead of being long, the fruit is just like *dudhya-bhopla*.

Kakdi.

Kakdi or *valuk* (cucumber) is grown in garden lands as a border crop. It is sown in June-July. The fruit is generally green and six inches long. The variety grown in *rabi* and hot season is dark-green in colour with longitudinal white stripes. It varies in length from eight inches to twenty inches. It is generally eaten as a raw fruit.

Tondli.

Tondli (little gourd) is a common vegetable. It is a wild creeper and grown as a field crop. It is a perennial crop and the *tondli* vine grows vigorously for about five years. The *tondli* fruit is used as a vegetable.

Pod Vegetables.

The district grows the following five pod vegetables:—

Abai.

Abai, a creeping plant, needs little water or manure for its growth. It is grown in the backyards of homesteads or on the edges of garden lands. It begins to bear fruits in three months' time and, in good soil, continues to bear fruits for three to four years. The pod, when young and tender, is used as a vegetable.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Pod Vegetables.

Bhendi.

Bhendi (lady's finger) is grown in this district as a cash crop in garden crops. The variety grown is a local one with four edges and a length of about six inches to ten inches. The variety of smaller *bhendis* is grown as an entire field crop on a very small scale. The green pods are used as a vegetable, either boiled or fried. The ripe seeds of *bhendi* are used in curry and chutney. Water steeped with green *bhendi* plants is used in *gul* making (to remove the scum) on a large scale.

Gavari.

Gavari is grown in gardens at any time and during the rains on the borders of the crops like chillies. It begins to bear pods in three months' time and, if watered occasionally, goes on bearing for some months. The plant grows about three feet high with a single fibrous stem from which the pods grow in bunches. The pod is used as a vegetable.

Ghevada.

Ghevada is grown with or without water in June-July on the edges of dry crops. It begins to bear fruit in about three and a half months time and goes on bearing till January. As an irrigated crop, it is grown around garden crops or in the yards and porches of houses.

Shravan Ghevada.

Shravan Ghevada (french beans) is grown in the district, both for seeds and vegetables. When grown for vegetables, it is sown as a catch crop in garden crops. When it is taken for seed purposes, it is sown as a mixed crop in dry crops in June-July. The green pods, when tender, are used as a vegetable.

Leafy Vegetables.

Kolhapur district grows about a dozen leafy vegetables which are quite favourite with all classes of people.

Ambadi.

Ambadi is grown in garden lands for vegetable purposes at any time of the year. After six weeks of planting, tender leaves are produced in abundance. These are plucked and used as a vegetable.

Chandanbatva.

Chandanbatva is grown on garden lands at any time of the year. The plant stands about a foot high and has got red leaves at the apical portion. The leaves and tender stems are eaten as a pot herb.

Chakvat.

Chakvat is grown in other garden crops as a mixed crop. Before watering the land, the seeds are broadcast by hand. The plant bears good pulpy leaves just like *chuka*. The leaves are used as a vegetable.

Chavli.

Chavli is grown in garden at any time of the year. It closely resembles *tandulja* but seldom grows more than six inches in height. The leaves and stem are uniformly green.

Chuka.

Chuka (bladder-dock) is grown in gardens at any time of the year, and is ready for use in about a month after sowing. The plant is eaten as a pot herb.

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation. FRUITS AND VEGETABLES. Leafy Vegetables. *Karadi.*

Karadi is grown in garden lands, especially for vegetable purposes. It is grown at any time of the year. Karadi leaves are grown often five or six weeks after sowing the seed.

Math.

Math grown in the districts is of two varieties, red and green. Both varieties are grown in garden at any time of the year and are ready for use five to six weeks after sowing. The red variety stands three to five feet high with a thick stem and has a small central plume as well as side flowers. The leaves, and especially the stem, have a red tinge. The green variety is smaller. The leaves and the shoots are eaten boiled. The wild variety called *kate-math* grows naturally and is eaten by poor people.

Methi.

Methi (fenugreek) is grown in gardens, at any time of the year, all over the district. It is always an irrigated and manured crop and is usually ready to be cut in about three weeks' time and gets matured in two and a half months. When young, the entire plant is eaten as a pot herb by all classes.

Pokla.

Pokla of two kinds, red and green, grows one or two feet high in gardens at any time of the year. The leaf is ready for use in six weeks' time and is eaten as a pot herb.

Pudina.

Pudina (mint) is grown in garden lands. It is a perennial crop grown along the water channels in garden lands. The leaves are used as a garnish.

Rajgira.

Rajgira is of two varieties, red and green. It is grown in gardens at any time of the year. It is grown in the turmeric crop as a mixed-crop, for seed purposes. It grows about three to five feet high and has a heavy over-hanging central plume. The seed is exceedingly small and is usually trodden out by human feet or rubbed out by hand. It is usually eaten on fasting days either as *lahi* which is made into balls or as cakes made after mixing in hot jaggery syrup. The leaves are eaten as a pot herb.

Tandulja.

Tandulja is grown in gardens at any time of the year and is fit for use five or six weeks after sowing. The plant grows a foot high and has its stem near the root. It has no seed plume but flowers on each of its side shoots. Only the leaves and top shoots are eaten as a pot herb.

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CHAPTER 5.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
FODDER CROPS.

ACCORDING TO THE SEASON AND CROP REPORT, 1955-56, about 19 per cent. of the gross cropped area was under fodder crops. The following table shows the acreage under fodder crops in the district in 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 26.

AREA IN ACRES UNDER FODDER CROPS IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Hot Weather Jowar.	Grass and Babul.	Jowar.	Others.	Total Fodder Crops.
Ajara ..	..	21,872	..	..	21,872
Bavada ..	..	4,896	..	..	4,896
Bhudargad ..	..	7,496	..	..	7,496
Gadhinglaj ..	..	15,163	..	20	15,183
Hatkanangle ..		11,578	72	178	11,828
Kagal ..	..	33,641	6	..	33,647
Karvir ..	..	23,970	19	44	24,033
Panhala ..		21,536	..	..	21,536
Radhanagari ..	..	16,637	..	..	16,637
Shahuwadi ..	..	15,126	..	..	15,126
Shirol ..	358	4,140	..	495	4,993
District Total ..	358	1,76,055	97	737	1,77,247

Strictly speaking, fodder crops as such are not grown in the district. Grass and babul cover most of the area. Grass is grown in all the talukas and all along the mali lands on a large scale. The trees of Shevri are also grown on these lands on a large scale. They serve the purpose of growing fodder and also help sedimentation during floods. The grasslands in most of the talukas are manured once or twice, depending upon the number of cuttings in a year, with sulphate of ammonia. Jowar is grown as a fodder crop in the hot season though on a very small scale. In winter, maize is also taken as a fodder crop, but that too on a very small scale.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS VARY ACCORDING TO RAINFALL, soils of the tract and the nature of crops. These operations consist of opening of the land by digging or ploughing, further pulverising the soil, cleaning the fields, spreading manure and mixing it with the soil, sowing the seed or planting the sets of seedlings, interculturing, weeding, earthing up, irrigation, applying quick-acting manures as top dressing, spraying or dusting of insecticides, protecting the crops from birds, stray cattle and wild animals, harvesting, threshing and preparing the crops for the market and storing. In addition to these, occasional operations for permanent improvement of the soil such as bunding, levelling, trenching, draining the excess water from the soil, and reclaiming lands for cultivation are also undertaken by the farmers.

Ploughing.

Ploughing is done almost every year by wooden or iron ploughs to open the land to dig out deep rooted weeds or stubbles, to aerate the soil and to trap and store water for the

Ploughing.

crops. In the western zone of the district, in order to remove the stubbles of the previous crop, the land is ploughed by an iron plough or sometimes by tractors after the harvest of paddy and sugarcane. In the hilly tract, where only paddy is grown without rotational change, ploughing is done by small wooden plough worked by a pair of bullocks, preferably after the first shower of ante-monsoon or monsoon. On an average, one plough opens about half an acre to one acre of land, depending upon the season and the type of ploughing done e.g., deep ploughing for sugarcane and sweet potatoes. Deep ploughing is done either by iron ploughs worked by two or three pairs of bullocks or by tractors, the hire charges in the latter case being Rs. 30 per acre.

For ordinary crops in the eastern zone, land is ploughed by iron ploughs worked by two pairs of bullocks upto a depth of five or six inches. When the soil is moist enough, about one acre of land is ploughed; but when the soil is hard, hardly half an acre of land can be ploughed.

Pulverisation.

Pulverisation of the soil is done by one of the three kinds of implements (1) the beam harrow known as *maind,* (2) the wooden plank called *phali,* and (3) the blade harrow called *kulav*. The *maind* is worked by five bullocks to crush the big clods. Above two or three acres of land are covered daily. The *phali* is generally used when the clods are soft and small and when all the pulverising operations are over and the land is ready for sowing. It is worked by a pair of bullocks and covers generally three or four acres a day. The *kulav* is used after a shower or two or when the clods have become brittle. It is worked by a pair of bullocks and covers about two acres a day. The clods which escape the above operations are generally broken by beating with wooden hammer called *mogari*. This practice is followed generally in the western zone of the district.

Cleaning the field.

Cleaning of the field is generally done with the help of women labour. The remains of the previous crops, such as stubbles of sugarcane and jowar which hinder further operations and also provide shelter to insects, are collected and removed. The fields are kept clean and ready for sowing or planting before monsoon.

Manuring.

The farmer takes out the well-rotten farm yard manure or compost from the pits, by means of a *phavada* (spade) and a botli (basket) and carts the same to the field. The manure is heaped in small lots at convenient places in row. It is evenly spread over the field and then mixed with the soil by means of a *kulav* (harrow). In some places, especially in garden lands, sheep and goat folding is carried on all over the field. The dung and, especially the urine, serves as a good manure. It is estimated that about a thousand of these animals, when quartered for a night, give manure equal to about five to six cart loads of farm yard manure. The manure prepared from night soil and

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town sweepings is applied also to sugarcane crop on a large scale in the district. Generally, about 5 tons of this manure are applied per acre.

In most of the crops, seeds are sown for starting the crop; but in some in which seeds cannot be produced and even if produced, are costly, parts of plants are planted either after irrigation or rains. In the case of paddy, *nagli*, tobacco, chillies and such other crops, where the seed is very small and young and plant requires special care, seedlings are first raised in a specially prepared seedbed and then transplanted. The seeds are sown either by a seed drill (*kuri*) in lines or dibbled into the soil by hand. After sowing is accomplished, it is necessary to cover the seeds and press them lightly, otherwise the seeds are likely to be picked up by the birds. To achieve this object a light plank or harrow with only the headpiece is dragged over the land.

The practice of dibbling the seed is more popular in the district than that of sowing by a seed-drill. Dibbling of seed is followed throughout the district in the case of groundnut, and also to an appreciable extent in the case of *kharif* jowar and paddy. Before dibbling, the land is marked by a specially prepared marker (*tikatane*) both ways and dibbling of seed is done at each cross. Sowing commences generally soon after outbreak of the monsoon.

Statement showing sowing periods of some of the important crops in the district.

Crop.	Sowing or planting time.
Rice	June-Transplanting in July.
Jowar (*kharif*)	June-July.
Jowar (*rabi*)	October.
Bajri	June.
Maize	June. December-January. September-October.
Ragi	June-July.
Rale	June-July.
Vari	June-July.
Sava	June-July.
Wheat	November-December.
Sugarcane	November-December.
Cotton	August.
Groundnut	June-July.
Niger	June-July.
Chillies	June.
Turmeric	May.
Gram	November.
Kulthi	June-July.
Turi	June-July.
Tobacco	July (seed bed). August-transplanting.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.
Intercultivation.

Intercultivation means culturing or tilling or stirring the soil in between the lines of crop. This is done by an implement called *kolapi* or *dubi* (a hoe) or by *khurpi* or by hand. It is done to remove the weeds that take away large quantities of moisture and plant food, to aerate the soil to prepare the mulch (a loose layer of dry soil as covering), to conserve soil moisture useful for the crop, to prune the roots so as to encourage a deep root system, and to kill the harmful insects hibernating in the soil. Generally, two or three hoes are worked by a pair of bullocks and each hoe is handled by one man. This team can intercultivate about three to five acres a day. The frequency of intercultivation would depend upon the life and habit of growth of the crop and the soil condition. But generally it is done about three four times during the life period of most of the crops.

Weeding.

The weeds that are round about the plant or in line with the plant escape the hoe and thus are required to be removed by hand with the help of weeding hook (*khurpi*). Eight to ten women labourers are required to weed an acre of land, depending upon the kind and extent of the weed growth. Two to three weedings are generally done for most of the crops. After hoeing labour requirements for weeding are reduced by 30 to 40 per cent.

Earthing up.

The next important operation is earthing up i.e., digging the soil around that plant and heaping it up at the base of the plant. The earth is dug up by a pick axe (*kudali*) and brought at the base of the plant by a *phavada*. Sometimes it is also brought by hand at the base of the plant. This is done in order to give support to the plant, to prevent lodging and to keep the tubers and roots under the soil. Earthing up is required in the case of crops like sugarcane, tubers like potatoes and some vegetable and fruit trees Earthing up is done to a certain extent in the case of jowar crop dibbled by hand. For crops like sugarcane, a plough or a ridger is used to dig and bring the soil near the base of the plant and then it is attended to by human labour to give a finishing hand and to see that it is uniformely done and the soil is well pressed.

Top dressing.

Top-dressing, i.e. applying quick-acting manures on the surface of the soil and then mixing it up with the soil is done by stirring the soil. Some crops require additional amount of manure after germinating. The sugarcane crop usually requires four top dressings. Especially to the *ratoon* crop are given four top dressings in the root zone by making a hole therein by a crow-bar and filling it up with manure.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

IRRIGATION IS DONE FROM WELLS AND RIVERS. All the irrigation in the district is lift irrigation except small areas under tanks. Water is lifted by pumps worked either by oil engines or by electric power. In some parts *mots* are also used for the purpose.

In the case of tanks, one man is sufficient to irrigate one acre of land. In the case of pumps, one man is sufficient if he knows working of the engine. When water is supplied by a contractor, he maintains an engine-driver for the working and upkeep of the engine. The charges for water supply, when taken on contract basis, are about Rs. 250 to Rs. 300 per acre.

Fields are frequently irrigated and the interval between two waterings varies according to the soil, season and the crop under irrigation. The interval varies from eight to ten days for sugarcane crop and for other crops, such as vegetables, it is eight days. The quantity of water supplied per acre is about 2·5 acre inch. (An acre inch of water roughly measures 3,630 cu. ft or 101 tons or 22,687 gallons of water).

Crop protection.

The farmer has to provide for some protective and curative measures as well. He has to take precautionary measures to avoid certain pests and diseases. It has been found customary in the district to treat jowar seeds with sulphur for the control of the smut diseases of jowar known as *kani*. The practice of treating seed of paddy with perenox solution against the blast disease is gaining ground. Whenever any insect or disease appears on the crop, the farmers either spray or dust special insecticides or fungicides recommended by the Department of Agriculture. The use of Benzene Hexachloride (B.H.C.) 10 per cent. and 50 per cent. is universal and quite effective. The standing grain crops have to be watched during the season lest beasts, birds and other animals eat away the grain. The farmers shout and throw stones by slings (*gophan*) to scare away the birds. Kerosene oil tins, with small stones inside, are tied to the branches of trees with a string tied at the bottom. This string the farmer carries to his place from where, by giving it a pull off and on, a ratting noise is created to scare away the birds. Stray cattle are generally caught and compounded in the cattle pound. Wild animals are either shot or hunted individually or through gun clubs established for the purpose. The animals are shot only when they visit fields and not in the forest. Monkeys are caught in traps specially prepared for the purpose.

Harvesting.

One of the most important agricultural operations, next only to ploughing and sowing, is the reaping or harvesting of standing crops. Crops are harvested only when they are fully ripe. The period of ripening varies from crop to crop. The following

statement gives the harvesting time for some of the important crops :—

Crop		Harvesting time.
Rice	...	October-November.
Jowar (*Kharif*)	...	November-December.
Jowar (*Rabi*)	...	February-March.
Bajri	...	October-November.
Maize	...	March-April.
		July-August.
		December-January.
Ragi	..	November.
Vari	...	November.
Rale	..	November.
Sava	...	November.
Wheat	...	March.
Sugarcane	..	November-February.
Cotton	...	December-January.
Groundnut	..	November-January.
Niger	...	November-December.
Chillies	..	September-October.
Turmeric	..	December-January.
Gram	..	January.
Kulith	..	November-December.
Turi	..	January-February.
Tobacco	...	January.

Foodgrain crops such as rice, jowar, bajri and wheat are harvested by cutting the plants close to the ground by a sickle (*kurpa*). The cut plants are put into swaths (*alasya*) and the earheads, in the case of jowar, are removed by cutting and then carted to the threshing yard (*khola*). In the case of others, the swaths are bundled and carried straight to the threasing yard where they are kept well stocked. The earheads of *bajri* are removed by breaking at leisure time and when required and are threshed. Paddy bundles are threshed after two to three days of stocking, by beating the bundles on stone or log of wood in the threshing yard. The stems or stalks are dried, bundled and stocked as fodder.

Pulses are mostly cut as whole plants and are removed directly to the threshing yard. Vegetables are picked by hand and the leafy ones are uprooted. Root crops like sweet potatoes and turmeric are harvested by digging with *kudali* Groundnut is reaped and collected by hand after harrowing the crop with wooden harrow.

The sugarcane crop is harvested by cutting it close to the ground and carted to the crushing yard where it is crushed by power crushers. The juice is pumped directly into the boiling-pan and, after boiling for about three hours becomes thick and can then be moulded into blocks after cooling off for half an hour or so.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
IRRIGATION.
Threshing and preparing for market.

Grain crops such as jowar, *nagli,* bajri and pulses are trampled under bullocks' feet till the material is broken completely into chaff and grain. The grain is separated from the chaff by winnowing against the breeze. Some of the root vegetables are dug out, cleaned well by rubbing out the soil after drying, and sold in the market. Crops like turmeric are dried after being specially cured.

Storing.

Grains are stored either for purposes of seed or for consumption at a later date. When they are meant for purposes of seed, the quantity is usually small, especially when an individual farmer preserves his own seed. On the other hand when it is meant for future use, the quantity stored is usually large. Therefore, storage methods vary from place to place depending upon the use of grain. Before storing any grain, it is thoroughly dried. The seed, mixed with household ash, is well preserved in bamboo bins and well plastered on all sides with cowdung so as to keep off the insects that may attack it from outside. The grain for consumption is preserved either in gunny bags or in corrugated iron bins. In both the cases dry leaves of *nim* are mixed with the grain; use of five per cent B. H. C. is also now made for this purpose. Storing of paddy is done in specially prepared rooms. Seed of paddy is stored in specially prepared bins of rope prepared from the paddy straw called *mudha.*

Jaggery is not preserved by cultivators. Merchants preserve this in godowns either in cotton seed or paddy husk after covering each block with a piece of gunny.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, THE FIELD TOOLS AND IMPLEMENTS used by some agriculturists are modern but the old indigenous ones are in use in large numbers. Ploughs, harrows, levellers, clod crushers, wooden plants, seed-drills, markers, hoes (both entire blade and slit type) and stone rollers are the main implements used during the various phases of cultivation. Besides these, several hand tools are also used for sundry jobs on the farm. Iron ploughs, both heavy and small are, however, replacing wooden ploughs. Tractor drawn ploughs and disc harrows are in use in the district on an appreciable scale, especially in sugarcane growing areas. Electric motors are now in use for running water pumps along the *Bhogawati valley* and the *Panchaganga valley.* Oil engines are set up to work the water pumps in the district. In the interior, in a few undeveloped areas, *mots* are still in use for lifting water.

The following table shows talukaswise distribution of agricultural implements in Kolhapur district in 1956:—

TABLE No. 27

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY AND IMPLEMENTS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (TALUKAWISE), 1956.

Taluka.	Ploughs.		Carts.	Sugarcane Crushers.		Oil Engines with pumps for irrigation purposes.	Electric pumps for irrigation purposes.	Tractors.		Ghanis.	
	Wooden.	Iron.		Worked by power.	Worked by bullocks.			Government.	Private.	5 Seers and over	Less than 5 Seers.
1. Karvir ..	7,645	819	5,244	443	37	1,043	11	..	14	16	7
2. Hatkanangle ..	698	1,328	1,660	158	19	772	7	.	3	3	56
3. Shirol ..	635	1,648	4,238	66	5	330	6	.	5	4	6
4. Gadhinglaj ..	6,455	870	3,853	48	95	137	4	.	2	17	17
5. Bhudargad ..	9,682	95	1,591	93	134	137	.	..	1	8	12
6. Radhanagari ..	11,025	60	1,798	236	53	422	..	..	1	14	14
7. Kagal ..	5,404	908	3,929	91	50	401	3	..	3	27	9
8. Shahuwadi ..	11,082	246	1,445	47	34	162	2	..	..	3	19
9. Panhala ..	8,045	156	3,191	184	50	467	.	.	3	20	18
10. Bavada ..	7,318	12	685	11	8	56	.	..	..	.	4
11. Ajara	7,055	186	1,615	9	13	28	..	.	..	16	2
Total	75,374	7,130	29,309	1,386	498	3,055	33	..	37	128	164

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.
Ploughs.

Till the beginning of this century, indigenous ploughs made of *babul* wood were in common use in the former Kolhapur State. The Agricultural Department of the State made successful efforts in introducing and making popular the iron ploughs. Iron ploughs, both big and small, are now in use throughout the district.

The wooden plough (*nangar* or, when small, *nangri*) consists of several pieces, the principal of them being (1) *khod* (body); (2) *dandi* (beam or pole); (3) *ju* or *jokhad* (yoke); (4) *phal* (share); and (5) *ruman* (stilt). Only the share is made of iron, all other parts being made of wood. The body is of two parts, the *doke* (head) and the *dant* (shoe), all of one piece of wood and curved in shape. The head is thicker, and the shoe tapers to a point. The shoe is flat at the top in front and triangular at the bottom. The share (the iron part) is flat and sharp at the end; it is laid on the shoe, and secured to the main block by a *phalcamb* (small piece of wood). The front end of the share projects about six inches beyond the point six of the shoe, and is secured to the shoe by means of an iron ring (*vasu*). The beam is highly curved at its back and is fixed to the head (*doke*) so as to form an acute angle. The back end of the beam is projected about three inches beyond the head on which the handle (*rumane*) rests. The yoke is fixed to the front end of the beam. The handle (*stilt*) is separate, and on the top of it is fixed a *muthya* (short grip) to facilitate handling. A leather rope (*vethan*) passes back from the yoke behind the stilt and forward again to the yoke.

The indigenous plough opens a triangular furrow. The heavy type which weighs about 120 lbs. is yoked to four pairs of bullocks and furrows to a depth of six to eight inches, while the light one weighs about 60 lbs. and is yoked to two pairs of bullocks and furrows to a depth of about four inches. The heavier ploughs are replaced by iron ploughs and only the lighter types are used in garden lands. The very light plough, weighing about 15 to 20 lbs. is used in the Konkan tract of this district and is yoked to a pair of bullocks and furrows to a depth of about two inches.

Iron ploughs are supplied in the district by two Indian manufacturers who have got their factories in North and South Satara. There are two types of iron ploughs (i) those having reversible mould board which can be changed from one side to another and (ii) the fixed ones, just like an indigenous wooden plough. The ridgers are the heavier types and are in common use in sugarcane growing areas in the district for earthing up sugarcane crop.

Wooden ploughs are usually manufactured and repaired by the village carpenter. Iron ploughs are also repaired locally in workshops and at times by replacing spare parts.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Ploughs.

Tractor ploughs are also in use now-a-days in the district, especially in sugarcane growing areas. Tractors are owned by big cultivators and when idle these are hired out to other cultivators. The rate charged varies from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per acre, depending upon the type of ploughing.

Seed-Drills.

Seed-drills (*pabhar*) are implements made mostly of *babul* wood for the sowing of seeds in lines in a field at uniform depth. The furrows in which the seed is deposited are opened by coulters (*phan*). Three or six coulters are fixed to a small log of wood called *dind* (head-piece). Just above the tip of the front flat surface of the coulter a hole is bored through to fix a hollow bamboo tube (*nali*) for allowing the seed to pass through into the soil. Now-a-days, instead of hollow bamboo tubes, tubes of corrugated iron sheets are generally in use. All the tubes from the coulters are brought together and held in a bow-like wooden structure (*chade*) and tied firmly at the centre of the head-piece with a thin rope (*chade dor*) to ensure uniform distribution of seed in all the tubes. For traction, a beam is fixed to the centre of the head-piece with side braces on its sides for support. On the top of the head-piece, a handle (*rumane*) is fixed for guiding and pressing the implement. A yoke of proper length, according to the number of coulters and distance between them, is attached to the beam for yoking bullocks and is tied to the beam by a thick rope passing over and round the head-piece, making the whole frame rigid for work. This kind of seed-drill requires one man to drive a pair of bullocks and another person to feed the seed bowl uniformly with the seed to be sown. Three to four acres of land can be sown per day. Seed-drills are light or heavy according to the season and the crops to be sown. During the *kharif* season, the seed is to be deposited in the wet and soft soil up to a depth of two or three inches. This requires a lighter seed-drill. In the *rabi* season, the seeds are to be deposited to a depth of five or six inches where only sufficient moisture for the germination of seed is available. The seed-drills used for this are generally very heavy and strong. In the *rabi* season. *rabi* jowar, gram and wheat are sown by these seed-drills, and pulses. such as field peas, gram etc. are sown in a furrow behind a plough.

Water Lifts.

For lifting water from wells as well as from rivers for the purposes of irrigating the fields, centrifugal pumps, run on oil engines and a few on electric motors are mostly in use. *Mots* are in use in the interior and undeveolped areas and that too at a few places only. Iron *mots* are mostly in use; leather *mots* are used rarely. Iron *mots* are manufactured locally; leather *mots* are manufactured by the village cobbler. Oil engines in use are both of foreign as well as local makes. The latter are manufactured at Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji.

Harrow.

The harrow (*kulav*) is used after ploughing for crushing the clods of earth. The parts of the harrow are : head-piece (*dind*)

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS. Harrow.

prongs (*janoli*); blade (*phas*); beam (*dandi*) and handle (*rumane*). Except for the blade, which is made of iron, all parts are made of *babul* wood. The head-piece is straight and rectangular in cross section. In the front, two prongs are fixed into it, in a slanting direction downwards at an angle of 50° with the pole. The blade, made of iron, is straight, fairly long and thick. Its two ends are turned upwards to fit in prongs where they are firmly held by means of iron rings (*vasu*). The pole is straight and is fixed slightly on the left of the centre of the head-piece. It is supplemented by a short brace which is fixed on the right of the centre. The other end of the brace rests on the pole.

In Kolhapur district, two types of harrows are commonly used (i) *phasa*, a light one and (ii) *kulav*, a heavy one. *Kulav* is used for interculturing tobacco and chilly crops. *Phasa* is used for covering seeds. The harrow weighs about 25 to 30 lbs. and works to a depth of about two or three inches and requires one man and two bullocks. In a day, generally two acres of land are covered. The light harrow (*phasa*) weighs about 40 lbs. and works to a depth of about two inches and requires a man and two bullocks. In a day about four acres of land are covered. These harrows are constructed by village carpenters and are used in a variety of ways, for example, mixing manure, preparing seed-beds, covering seeds, levelling of land and even interculturing.

Beam Harrow.

The beam harrow (*maind*) is used for breaking the clod of earth after ploughing. The *maind* is a rectangular log of *babul* wood about 10 ft. long, one foot broad and about nine or ten inches thick and weighs about 150 or 200 lbs. A wooden beam is fixed to the log in the centre for applying force by a yoke to be attached to it. Two iron rings are fixed to the log, one on each side of the beam, for tying ropes for applying equal force to the end of the log.

Hoes.

In Kolhapur district, two types of hoes (*kolapa* and *duba*) are in use for interculturing jowar, groundnut, chillies and other food crops. The slit hoe is known as *kolapa* and the entire blade hoe is called *duba*. Hoes are really miniature harrows and are used to work in between the lines of crops to stir the soil so as to remove the weeds, loosen the soil, conserve moisture and aerate the soil. It is used only till the crop is about 12" to 15" in height. The size of *kolapa* depends upon the distance between the crop lines. The prongs and half the portion of the blade are made into one piece and two such pieces, fixed on the head-piece, have a slit which is about three inches wide. In case of *duba* the entire iron blade is fixed to the prongs. Generally, two or three hoes are worked on one yoke. The hoes are tied to the yoke by a piece of rope passing over the handle and the head-piece of the hoe. The yokes used are long and straight in proportion

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Hoes.

to the number of spaces covered and the distance between them. The reins, by which the bullocks are controlled, are tied to a "Y" shaped stick. This implement requires careful handling, especially when the crop is young. Two or three men with a pair of bullocks interculture about four or five acres of land a day. At many places, especially in rice lands, *kolpa* is worked by human labour only. It is drawn by a man and a woman. The woman pulls the hoe by means of a rope tied to her forehead (which is covered with cloth). The man presses and regulates (holds between the crops) the hoe from behind. A set of two or three hoes are worked like this by a team of three or four persons. The Department of Agriculture has introduced some improved types of hoes, namely Planet Junior hand hoes and shovel cultivators for working in wide-spaced crops like chillies, tobacco, sugarcane etc. In addition to these, with the introduction of Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation and also the dibbling method, the Karjat hand and rotary hoes and Japanese hand hoes have been introduced and become very popular with paddy cultivators in the district.

Stone Roller.

A stone roller, instead of bullocks, is usually used for threshing jowar ear-heads. The roller is about three feet in length; its diameter varies at both the ends. On one side it is about one and half or two feet and on the other side it is one or one and half feet. The end with smaller diameter is kept inside so that it turns automatically. A pair of bullocks can easily operate it

Bullock Cart.

The bullock cart (*gadi*) is the common means of transportation in carrying out agricultural operations The present cart consists of a large frame of *babul* wood supported on two big wheels held together by an axle. The wheels have iron tyres. These carts are drawn by a pair of bullocks.

In recent years, this means of transport has undergone several improvements. Introduction of ball bearing arrangements has helped in reducing friction and giving easy movement to the wheels. Pneumatic rubber tyres in place of iron ones are available, but in actual practice the cultivators find them very costly and their use is, therefore, restricted to a few rich farmers and contractors.

Miscellaneous.

Besides the tools worked with the help of bullocks, there are a few tools which are utilised in various other agricultural operations and are worked by hand. These are :—axe (*kurhad*); pick axe (*kudali*); spade (*phavada*); marker (*tikatane* or *yedtang*); weeding hook (*khurpe*); sickle (*vila*); bill hook (*koyata*); crowbar (*aidan* or *pahar*); and rake (*dantale*). These are mostly made by the village carpenter or blacksmith.

As no animal-driven implement for harvesting has been devised, the principal tool is the sickle (*vila*) with an entire

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AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Miscellaneous.

cutting edge. It is used in harvesting the crops by cutting the stems. The pick axe (*kudali*) is used for digging up and harvesting various root crops. The spade (*phavada*) is useful for repairing and making bunds, water channels and filling the fields with soil and manures. The marker (*tikatane*) is useful in making the field before sowing seed or transplanting seedlings at a regular distance varying from one foot to three feet. The weeding hook (*khurpe*) and a sickle (*vila*) are possessed by each working member of the cultivator's family. The bill-hook (*koyata*) and the axe (*kurhad*) are important implements for purposes of cutting and chopping trees and wood. The crowbar (*aidan*) is usually used on the farm for lifting clods or stones. digging holes and other allied operations. Threshing is generally done in the case of paddy by bullocks, unaided by any appliance. For winnowing, bamboo basket (*bootti*) is used. The man stands at a height and gradually drops the grains from the basket so that the husk is blown away. In some places artificial wind is produced by using a winnowing fan designed by the Department of Agriculture. It is just like an electric fan being worked by hand by means of gears driven by a cycle chain.

Sugarcane is usually crushed by power crushers. Iron mills operated by bullocks are seen at a few places. For the preparation of *gul*, sugarcane juice is boiled in open pans made of iron. The pan is about two feet and three inches deep and about eight feet eight inches in diameter and has a capacity of 240 gallons of sugarcane juice. The moulds for preparing *gul* blocks are made of galvanised iron sheets. Besides these two implements, various small implements such as scumstrainer etc. are also required in the manufacture of *gul*.

LIVE-STOCK.

LIVE-STOCK HAS AN IMPORTANT PLACE IN AGRICULTURE. Though much progress has been made in this district in the use of machine power for ploughing, water-lifting. sugarcane crushing etc., live-stock continues to have its own value. Cattle labour represents probably the most important contribution of live-stock to agriculture. A pair of bullocks for draught, a cow or buffalo for milk, draught and manure and, in addition, a few sheep, goats and poultry are quite common to be found with a large number of farmers of the district. Further, in rural areas a farmer's status is judged by the number of cattle he maintains. In fact no farmer can do farming economically without the aid of livestock.

Given below are the results of the live-stock census conducted in 1951 and 1956 by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Bombay: —

TABLE No. 28.

BOVINE POPULATION IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, 1951 AND 1956.

Classification of cattle.	Cow Class.		Buffalo Class.	
	1951	1956	1951	1956
Males (over 3 years):—				
1. Breeding bulls ..	2,840	466	903	386
2. Working bullocks ..	1,31,980	1,29,507	45,145	37,105
3. Other bulls ..	2,569	2,010	769	436
Females (over 3 years):—				
1. In milk	59,028	43,993	80,512	79,936
2. Dry	15,148	28,366	9,875	21,077
3. Not calved	7,910	9,721	4,246	11,104
4. For work	87	133	770	446
5. Others	795	389	648	340
Young stock—				
1. Under 1 year:—				
Males ..	12,489	17,008	8,438	15,959
Females ..	11,587	16,172	13,078	24,152
2. 1 to 3 years:				
Males ..	23,370	20,344	15,376	11,085
Females ..	19,776	17,407	23,366	23,267
Total ..	2,90,579	2,85,816	2,09,926	2,25,383

The total bovine population of the district in 1956 was 5,11,199. Besides these animals, the census enumerates 86,884 sheep, 1,14,370 goats, 1,014 horses and ponies, 1,388 pigs, 481 donkeys, six camels and four mules. Though these animals do not necessarily work on farm, yet they are useful to the farmer in a number of ways and are, therefore, included in agricultural live-stock. The total number of animals, constituting agricultural live-stock, returned at the 1956 census was, therefore, 7,15,345.

Owing to changes consequent upon the formation of Kolhapur district in 1948, it is not possible to assess correctly the trends underlying, and the changes in the composition of, live-stock population in the district. In the table above are also set out the figures for the bovine population returned at the 1951 census. The variation of population recorded in the quinquennium ending 1956 hardly exceeds two per cent. And when marginal errors are taken into account one might have to concede that the cattle population, which constitutes the bulk of livestock, has remained stationary. Whatever variation is observed, it is mainly due to considerable increase in young stock (less than a year old), as shown below: —

TABLE No. 29.

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (TALUKAWISE), 1956.

Taluka.	Bovines over 3 years.						
	For work.			For breeding.		For other purposes.	
	Oxen.	He-Buffaloes.	Total.	Bulls.	Buffaloe Bulls.	Oxen.	He-Buffaloes.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Karvir	16,767	2,875	19,642	103	103	176	53
Hatkanangle	13,502	2,824	16,326	19	51	117	32
Shirol	11,158	276	11,434	19	42	65	19
Gadhinglaj	12,659	2,759	15,418	61	54	64	16
Bhudargad	9,279	4,472	13,751	52	15	93	35
Radhanagari	10,172	5,853	16,325	38	18	395	52
Kagal	13,259	1,358	14,617	11	27	248	40
Shahuwadi	10,391	6,654	17,045	91	24	251	48
Panhala	10,964	4,799	15,763	49	27	195	70
Bavada	12,174	2,318	14,493	10	8	362	50
Ajara	8,882	2,917	11,799	13	17	44	21
Total ..	1,29,507	37,105	1,66,613	466	386	2,010	436

TABLE No. 29—*contd.*

Taluka.	Milch-cattle.							
	In milk.			Dry.			Others.	
	Cows.	She Buffaloes.	Total.	Cows.	She Buffaloes.	Total.	Cows.	Buffaloes.
1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Karvir	4,996	14,584	19,580	2,685	4,184	6,869	1,052	1,773
Hatkanangle	3,311	13,070	16,381	1,431	2,273	3,704	768	2,153
Shirol	2,427	11,877	14,304	573	1,266	1,839	480	1,326
Gadhinglaj	2,645	9,771	12,416	1,807	2,622	4,429	650	1,516
Bhudargad	4,433	3,502	7,935	1,473	425	1,898	867	708
Radhanagari	5,197	4,624	9,821	3,152	1,267	4,419	938	685
Kagal	3,506	7,969	11,475	2,242	2,050	4,292	823	1,573
Shahuwadi	6,575	4,976	11,551	4,864	2,345	7,209	1,478	629
Panhala	4,150	5,305	9,455	4,053	2,467	6,520	1,270	860
Bavada	3,764	1,483	5,247	3,721	871	4,592	1,309	296
Ajara	2,989	2,775	5,764	2,305	1,307	3,672	608	462
District Total ..	43,993	79,936	1,23,929	28,366	21,077	49,443	10,243	11,980

TABLE No. 29—*contd.*

Taluka.	Young Stock.					
	Cow-Calves.	Buffalo Calves.	Total bovines.	Horse and Ponies.	Sheep.	Goats.
1	17	18	19	20	21	22
Karvir	7,621	11,137	68,109	241	16,597	13,056
Hatkanangle	4,264	10,455	54,270	227	25,045	12,388
Shirol	3,608	11,132	44,268	242	12,873	11,150
Gadhinglaj	5,027	9,162	48,812	32	12,534	11,813
Bhudargad . . .	6,076	3,743	35,173	12	623	7,607
Radhanagari	6,949	3,983	43,623	37	1,929	8,822
Kagal	6,284	8,017	47,407	107	7,157	9,648
Shahuwadi	10,605	5,215	54,146	38	4,137	15,272
Panhala	7,004	5,450	46,663	62	5 034	11,770
Bavada	7,594	2,115	36,075	8	12	6,385
Ajara	6,199	4,054	32,653	8	343	6,459
District Total ..	71,231	74,463	5,11,199	1,014	86,884	1,14,370

It will be seen that the number of bovines is more in the eastern divisions. The Karvir taluka, comprising mostly of plains, records the highest number while in the taluka of Ajara, having hilly topography, the lowest number has been returned.

Plough Cattle.

Though much headway has been made in the use of mechanical implements like electric pumps, oil engines, tractors, sugarcane crushers etc., bullocks and he-buffaloes still occupy an important place in rural transportation and agricultural operations. The total number of plough cattle was reported as 1,66,612 heads in 1956.

Considering the periods of work in the district (such as ploughing, sowing, threshing, sugarcane crushing), shortage of draft-cattle is much felt during such periods. During off-season, however, there is not sufficient work. Again, certain farm operations overlap one another; the threshing of *kharif* crops, sowing of *rabi* crops, crushing sugarcane, casting farm-yard manure and lifting water for planting and irrigating cane, crowd together. During off-season, however, there is not sufficient work. As lifting water is a steady and continuous process from about October to June and animals, meant for *mot* work are not available for harrowing or ploughing.

It will also be observed that there are comparatively more he-buffaloes in the western hilly tract comprising mainly Shahuwadi, Radhanagari, Bhudargad and Panhala talukas. This appears to be due to the use of small buffaloes for puddling rice lands and ploughing *nagli* lands.*

Milch Cattle.

Cows and buffaloes are kept mainly for purposes of breeding and milk production. Out of the total number of 1,95,595 milch cattle, 1,23,929 i.e. about 63 per cent, were reported to be in milk in 1956. Out of the rest, only 579 females were working on farms She-buffaloes are more popular in the district because of their higher milk yield than cows. Cows are reared by the farmers mainly for the male progeny for draught. Geography of the district also influences milk yield. In the eastern region, comprising the talukas of Shirol, Hatkanangle, Karvir, Kagal and Gadhinglaj, which is fairly free from mosquitoes and flies in wet season, the annual yield of milk per cattle head is much higher than in the rainy and hilly western region where the cattle are very much afflicted by flies and mosquitoes during the wet season.

Breeds of Cattle.

The important breeds of cows and bullocks observed in this district are *Khillar, Krishna valley. Dangi* and *Jawari* (local).

Khillar.

Khillar : The animals of this breed are mostly located in the eastern zone, Shirol taluka in particular. Khillar is

* Regional Survey of Resources, India, Kolhapur, Dr. P. C. Patil, p. 150 (1950).

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

LIVE-STOCK.

Breeds of cattle.

Khillar.

a very hardy animal and its capacity for heavy field and transport work is remarkable. It pulls on well under prolonged drought condition. These qualities have made this breed popular in the district. Its milk yield, however, is quite low; though efforts are being made to increase it.

Height 4½ to 5½ feet.

Weight 800 to 1,000 lbs.

Krishna Valley.

Krishna Valley: The origin of the breed is found along the banks of the Krishna river. The animals are of heavy draught type. This is a dual purpose breed and has potentialities of good milk yield. The animals are, however, slow for field work. This breed is gradually disappearing because of the increasing popularity of the Khillar animals.

Height 4½ to 5½ feet.

Weight 1,200 to 1,400 lbs.

Dangi

Dangi: The animals of this breed are found in the heavy rainfall areas of the west. The animals are extremely hardy and stand up well to the heavy rainfall. They are not affected by working continuously under wet conditions. This is a dual purpose breed.

Height 4 to 4½ feet.

Weight 700 to 850 lbs.

Jawari.

Jawari (local): These animals are observed with most of the cultivators in the district. These are small sized animals of a mixed and non-descript origin and, therefore have different colours.

The breeds of buffaloes found in the district are the *Pandharpuri* and *Jawari*, the local one.

The animals of Pandharpuri breed are medium sized and are found commonly in the eastern and central portions of the district which have light and medium rainfall respectively. These animals yield much more milk than the animals of the local breed (Jawari) and at the same time are very economical to maintain. The animals of the local breed are small sized and are commonly used for agricultural purposes in the heavy rainfall areas, though they are scattered all over the district.

Horses.

Horses, mules, and asses, though classed as agricultural livestock are not actually used for agricultural operations. They are mainly used for drawing conveyance, for transport work and as pack animals in the western parts.

Sheep and Goats.

Kolhapur district has the largest number of sheep and goats of the Deccani type. These animals are supposed to be valuable assets to the *dhangar* community who mainly rear them for wool, hair, skin and mutton. Goats constitute an important source of milk supply to the poor cultivators. Most of the sheep flocks are found in the eastern hilly tract where rainfall is less and grazing facilities are abundant. These flocks of sheep move from one area to another during the rainy season, especially towards the eastern side where grazing facilities are abundant and cost of maintenance low.

Poultry.

Poultry-keeping has now developed into an important cottage or subsidiary industry in rural areas. According to 1956 census, the poultry population was 3,38,544 out of which 3,37,893 were fowls (hens, cocks and chickens). Nearly thirty per cent of the fowls are to be found in the talukas of Karvir and Shahuwadi. Eggs, fowls and ducks are considered to be a valuable non-vegetarian food.

Sources of supply.

Kolhapur district is mainly an importer of live-stock, particularly of the pure breeds of cattle like *Khillar* bulls and bullocks, and *Pandharpuri* she-buffaloes. The animals of pure *Khillar* breed are brought mainly from cattle fairs held annually at Karagani and Kharsundi in South Satara district and from the *Khillar* cattle shows and fairs in Sholapur district. The *Deshi Khillar* animals come mainly from Chinchali cattle fair in Belgaum district. Kurundwad, which is situated along the banks of the *Krishna* and the *Panchganga*, is an important source of supply of *Krishna Valley* breed and is famous for its cattle fairs. Animals of mixed breed are sold in the weekly bazars at Vadgaon, Ichalkaranji, Murgud and Gadhinglaj.

Products.

Milk occupies a dominant place among live-stock products, Kolhapur city and other towns being the ready markets. It is a practice with young people, particularly gymnasts in Kolhapur city to visit early in the morning Gangavesh (for buying milk) where she-buffaloes are milked by the owners on the spot in front of the customers. When milk cannot be easily transported for liquid consumption, it is converted into milk products like butter, ghee, *khowa* etc. Climatic conditions and the crop pattern followed in the district are very suitable for developing good milch strains. In fact, the riverine areas

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation LIVE-STOCK. Products.

provide ample facilities for dairy farming and yet the dairy industry in the district is in backward condition.

TABLE No. 30.

THE AVERAGE ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF LIVE-STOCK AND ITS VALUE, IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Live-stock products.	Quantity.	Value in Rupees.
Milk	54,058 (tons)	2,43,26,100
Eggs	1,07,79,420 (numbers)	10,77,942
Manure	25,89,926 (cart loads)	51,79,852
Hides	51,119 (numbers)	7,66,785
Skins	40,250 (numbers)	30,180
Wool	1,08,605 (lbs.)	1,62,907
Cow calves	23,737 (numbers)	11,86,850
Buffalo calves	24,821 (numbers)	18,61,575

Prices.

The following were the live-stock prices current in 1958-59 :—

LIVE-STOCK PRICES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, 1958-59.

Live-stock.	Value.	Unit.
Pure-Bred Cattle :—		
Khillari breeding bull above 2½ years	Rs. 800 to 1,200	Each
Khillari bull calf below 2 years	„ 500 to 800	Each.
Khillari cow	„ 400 to 600	Each.
Khillari pair of bullock	„ 1,000 to 1,600	Per pair.
Pandharpuri buffalo bull	„ 250 to 1,000	Each.
Pandharpuri buffaloes	„ 600 to 1,000	Each.
Other Cattle :—		
Country pair of bullocks	„ 150 to 400	Per pair.
Country cows	„ 75 to 150	Each.
Country buffalo-bulls	„ 100 to 150	Each.
Country buffaloes	„ 200 to 300	Each.
Sheep and goats*	„ 15 to 25	Each.
Poultry Stock :—		
Pure-bred	„ 10 to 12	Per bird.
Country	„ 2 to 3	Per bird.
Eggs	„ 1	10 to 12 eggs.

* Price is dependent on the age of the animal.

FODDER SUPPLY.

THE DISTRICT IS SELF-SUFFICIENT in the matter of fodder supply. The main sources of fodder are the grazing areas or *kurans* along the banks of the rivers. Quality grass is also grown in these *kurans*. It is cut, tied into bundles and sold in the market. The fodder from the crops of jowar, bajri, rice and hill millets is also fed to the cattle and is sufficient to meet local requirements.

Health Conditions.

Generally, the working bullocks and milch cattle (cow and buffaloes) keep good health in view of better care taken by the owners. Dry and useless animals are maintained only on grazing and the little fodder spared by the owner, naturally, their health is poor. Horses are maintained on good rations and hence enjoy good health. Poultry in general is maintained on free grazing and is, therefore, always in good health.

Breeding, Veterinary and Husbandry Facilities.

There is no live-stock farm in the district. To improve the local *jawari* breed, breeding bulls of *Khillar* and *Dangi* breeds have been located in selected areas of light and heavy rainfall tracts respectively. An artificial insemination centre has been established at Kolhapur where breeding work is being carried out on cows and she-buffaloes. Veterinary aid is available from the veterinary dispensaries opened at each taluka headquarters. They are in the charge of veterinary officers. Veterinary dispensaries at different centres opened in the talukas are in the charge of stockmen.

Cattle Improvement.

The Government schemes that were in operation (in 1958) for cattle improvement were regarding (i) location of breeding bulls; (ii) *Goshala* development; and (iii) poultry improvement.

Location of breeding bulls is done under the following schemes :—

(i) *Half cost scheme.*—Under this scheme, a farmer-*cum*-breeder is selected and issued a breeding bull by granting a subsidy of Rs. 350 or half of the actual cost of the breeding bull, whichever is less. No maintenance charges are paid to the owner of the breeding bull. The bull is to be maintained by the farmer in good breeding condition for a period of three years from the date of issue. His services are to be utilized by the villagers for improving their cattle.

(ii) *District maintenance charges scheme.*—The farmer-*cum*-breeder has to purchase the breeding bull at his own cost with the approval of the Department of Agriculture. The bull is then paid a maintenance charge of Rs. 12 per month for a period of three years from the date of issue. The

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owner is expected to maintain the bull in good breeding condition and make available his services for improving village cattle.

(iii) *Personal ledger account (P. L. A.) Scheme.*—The breeder is granted a loan to the extent of Rs. 300 per bull from the personal ledger account of the Cattle Development Officer, Poona. The loan (at 4½ per cent. interest) is repayable within three years in six equal six monthly instalments. The breeder is also given Rs. 12 as maintenance subsidy for a period of three years, but the maintenance charges are credited to the account of repayment of loans.

(iv) *District Live-stock Advance Fund.*—The scheme is almost similar to the above except that the loan is paid from the funds kept at the disposal of the Collector of Kolhapur.

The Goshala Development Scheme provided that a foundation stock of ten breeding cows and one breeding bull at Government cost was to be supplied to a selected *Goshala* or *Panjrapole*. The *goshala* or *panjrapole* should also purchase an equal number of breeding stock at its own cost. The *goshala* was to carry out breeding work of this foundation stock for a period of five years. The *goshala* was given an annual grant-in-aid of Rs. 2,000 per year by Government. The Shahupuri *Panjarpol* Sanstha was selected for implementation of this scheme during the year 1951-52. The animals were of the *Gir* breed. The Sanstha worked under the scheme from 1951-52 to 1956-57.

Poultry Improvement Schemes provide for the supply of pure-bred cocks of improved white leg horn and Rhode Island breeds to *bona fide* cultivators at the concessional rates fixed by the Poultry Development Officer, Poona. A Government Poultry Farm has been established at Kolhapur.

IRRIGATION.

THE RAINFALL IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, though less subject to great variations from year to year is, nevertheless, frequently very unevenly distributed during the latter months of the monsoon (September and October). This time is critical, both for rice and jowar crops. The main justification for irrigation facilities in the district is, therefore, to make good the deficiencies of rainfall in September and October, so as to ensure good crops in all years.

The following table shows the net area irrigated by different sources of irrigation in Kolhapur district :—

TABLE No. 32.

NET AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES OF IRRIGATION IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Net Area irrigated by					Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown.	Area irrigated more than once in the same year.	Total gross area of crops irrigated.	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total sown area.
	Government Canals.	Tanks.	Wells.	Other Sources.	Total.				
Ajara ..	....	41	185	732	958	1·4	....	958	1·4
Bavada ..	..	....	78	850	928	3·5	45	973	3·5
Bhudargad ..	....	....	492	3,663	4,155	8	....	4,155	8
Gadhinglaj ..	....	14	1,655	1,508	3,177	3·1	15	3,192	3·1
Hatkanangle ..	560	290	7,751	3,517	12,118	10	1,222	13,340	10
Kagal ..	....	371	1,209	2,859	4,439	4	202	4,641	4
Karvir ..	....	585	3,106	10,249	13,940	12	....	13,940	12
Panhala ..	..		1,251	4,871	6,122	8	....	6,122	8
Radhanagari ..	3,170	..	475	2,975	6,620	10	109	6,729	10
Shahuwadi ..	.	...	272	5,719	5,991	9	....	5,991	8
Shirol ..	...	..	5,208	1,530	6,738	6	....	6,596	6
District Total ..	3,730	1,301	21,682	38,473	65,180	7	1,593	66,779	7·2

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In the year 1955-56, this district had 66,779 acres under irrigation of which 1,593 acres were irrigated more than once. Therefore, the percentage that the total gross irrigated area bears to the total sown area comes to 7·2. The coverage of irrigation seems to have increased only in recent years i.e. after the merger of the former Kolhapur State in the then Bombay State (See the figures given below):—

Year.	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total cropped area.
1881*	2·7
1949-50	4·1
1950-51	6·1
1951-52	6·8
1952-53	6·7
1953-54	6·2
1954-55	6·7
1955-56	7·2

The following tables show the distribution of irrigated area under food and non-food crops :—

* For Kolhapur State.

TABLE No. 33

AREA OF FOOD CROPS IRRIGATED IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Rice	Wheat.	Jowar.	Maize.	Ragi or Marua.	Gram.	Sugarcane.	Potato.	Miscellaneous Food Crops.	Total Food Crops.
Ajara ..	40	15	....	43	....	....	857	....	....	955
Bavada ..	45	2	....	....	....	....	926	....	....	973
Bhudargad ..	....	....	....	229	....	....	3,925	....	1	4,155
Gadhinglaj ..	22	47	....	7	....	....	2,980	....	53	3,109
Hatkanangle ..	2,085	1,149	....	24	25	197	8,725	2	339	11,446
Kagal ..	....	152	25	66	....	67	4,114	....	113	4,537
Karvir ..	54	593	....	....	....	214	12,087	2	330	13,880
Panhala ..	....	590	....	....	....	....	5,457	....	34	6,090
Radhanagari ..	....	318	....	109	....	....	6,212	....	90	6,729
Shahuwadi ..	....	710	....	2,360	....	629	2,122	....	179	5,991
Shirol ..	95	1,190	....	55	25	....	2,356	....	258	3,979
District Total ..	3,241	4,775	25	2,893	50	1,107	48,361	4	1,388	61,844

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TABLE No. 34.

AREA OF NON-FOOD CROPS IRRIGATED IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Jute.	Chillies.	Turmeric.	Fodder Crops.	Miscellaneous Non-Food Crops.	Total Non-Food Crops.	Total Area under Irrigated Crops.
Ajara ..	..	..	..	..	3	3	958
Bavada ..	..	..	..	..	..	.	973
Bhudargad ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,153
Gadhinglaj ..	..	.	19	..	64	83	3,192
Hatkanangle ..	..	288	1,255	72	279	1,894	13,340
Kagal ..	..	..	30	6	68	104	4,641
Karvir ..	3	2	39	..	16	60	13,940
Panhala ..	..	..	27	..	5	32	6,122
Radhanagari	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,729
Shahuwadi ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,991
Shirol ..	..	2,021	234	358	146	2,759	6,738
District Total .	3	2,311	1,604	436	581	4,935	66,770

It is interesting to note that the entire sugarcane grown in the district is taken on irrigated lands. In fact sugarcane occupies about 72 per cent. of the total irrigated land in the district. Out of the remaining 28 per cent., 20 per cent. is under food crops and the rest under non-food crops. About 41 per cent. of total irrigated area is in the talukas of Hatkanangale and Karvir; next in importance are the talukas of Shirol, Radhanagari, Panhala and Shahuwadi.

Sources of Irrigation.

The following table shows the sources of irrigation in Kolhapur district :—

TABLE No. 3[illegible]

SOURCE OF WATER SUPPLY IN EACH TALUKA OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Source of Water supply	Ajara.	Bavada.	Bhudargad.	Gadhinglaj.	Hatkanangle.	Kagal.	Karvir.	Panhala.	Radhanagari.	Shahuwadi.	Shirol.	District Total.
Canals :—												
(a) Government—												
(1) Number ..	.		..	.	5	.	.	.	1	..	.	6
(2) Mileage ..	..	.	..	..	1	..	..		15	..	..	16
Number of other wells used for irrigation purposes only—												
(a) Private—												
(1) Masonry .	117	.	21	264	835	172	270	250	29	64	391	2,413
(2) Non-Masonry ..	104	47	63	987	1,532	855	806	396	243	116	832	5,981
(b) Total—												
(1) Masonry ..	117	..	21	264	835	172	270	250	29	64	391	2,413
(2) Non Masonry ..	104	47	63	987	1,532	855	806	396	243	116	832	5,981
(c) Total ..	221	47	84	1,251	2,367	1,027	1,076	646	272	180	1,223	8,394

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Sources of Irrigation.

TABLE No. 35—*contd.*

Source of Water supply	Ajara.	Bavada.	Bhudargad.	Gadhinglaj.	Hatkanangle.	Kagal.	Karvir.	Panhala.	Radhanagari.	Shahuwadi.	Shirol.	District Total.
Number of wells used for domestic purposes only ..	174	1,065	152	371	154	65	32	76	115	101	59	2,374
Number of wells not in use ..	69	15	16	30	465	298	250	104	40	53	167	1,507
Reservoirs ..	..	..	..	..	9	..	..	.	..	..	..	9
Tanks :—												
(a) With ayacut 100 acres or more ..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
(b) With ayacut less than 100 acres ..	12	..	..	1	31	2	3	..	..	..	..	49
(c) Total ..	12	..	..	1	32	2	4	..	..	..	..	51
Number of engines ..	28	56	137	43	772	401	1,043	434	460	143	330	3,847

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Canals.

Several interesting facts emerge from this table.

Canal irrigation does not seem to be an important source of irrigation and area under this source was only 3,730 acres in 1955-56. Further, only in the talukas of Hatkanangle and Radhanagari do we see something of canal irrigation. In other talukas, and for that matter, in the whole of the district, canal irrigation is not found feasible as a source of irrigation because of the peculiar topography of the district. The banks of the rivers are hilly and undulating and are interposed by many spurs. They naturally render the possibility of flow irrigation uneconomical due to heavy cutting of canals etc.

Tanks and Reservoirs.

Excepting the three tanks of Rajaram, Rankala and Vadgaon, there are no other tanks of much importance in the district. These three tanks were constructed long back by the then rulers of former Kolhapur State and the date of their construction and details of expenditure incurred on them are not available. The area under command of, and actually irrigated by, each of these tanks is given below:—

Tank.	Taluka in which located.	Area in acres.	
		Under command.	Actually irrigated.
Rajaram ..	Karvir ..	100	90
Rankala ..	Karvir ..	450	379
Vadgaon ..	Hatkanangle ..	190	34

In Kolhapur district, tanks were never a large source of irrigation but were used as village water-suppliers. Most of the tanks being silted have now gone out of use. The few existing ones serve the same purpose to-day. In 1955-56, nine reservoirs and fifty-one tanks were reported. Out of the fifty-one tanks only two are with ayacut 100 acres or more, the rest being with ayacut less than 100 acres. The net area under tank irrigation was 1,301 acres.

Wells.

Well irrigation occupies an important place in the agriculture of the district. In 1955-56 there were 8,394 wells in the district which irrigated nearly one-third of the net area irrigated in the same year. Little more than two-thirds of the wells were non-masonry, the rest being masonry. All the wells were owned privately.

It is interesting to note that the number of wells in the western part is small, inspite of heavy rainfall. This is because the surface-wash runs off the steep hills The soils are thin and sub-soils rocky and cannot absorb and retain water to feed the wells. In the eastern region the lie of the land is suitable for wells, lands being fairly deep with soft rock below. In years of good rainfall they are dependable, though in some the supply of water fails in summer.

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Lift Irrigation.

As has been already stated, because of its peculiar topography, flow irrigation is not practicable in Kolhapur district. The only alternative available, therefore, is to provide lift irrigation facilities on the river banks. Before the advent of water pumps, farmers of the district used to make full use of river water by means of *bhudki mots*, mainly for growing sugarcane. Now this system is being replaced rapidly by water pumps.

A *bhudki* is a shallow hole dug in the bed of a river or stream, while a well is a vertical deep shaft or hole, dug on the farm to obtain underground water. *Bhudki* is a temporary structure about 10 feet deep ; a well may be 25 to 50 feet deep and is of a permanent nature. The water lifted from a well is led straight to the field. In the case of *bhudkis*, the water raised from the first *bhudki* (in the river bed) is led to the second, then to the third and so forth. In this system, there are three to five *bhudkis*, usually four ; and the total lift generally is of 50 feet.

This account of *bhudki* system in the district will not be complete without a reference to the *phad* system. The *phad* system is an old co-operative organisation (reported to be existing long before 1850). This system has a great bearing on the agricultural economy of the district.

The necessity of this kind of co-operative organisation arises from the fact that, apart from lack of capital required to raise sugarcane on large scale, the individual farmer has neither sufficient man or animal power at his command to lift river water. In the *phad* system man and animal power of individuals are pooled together. The organisation takes on lease a block of land on joint responsibility; the owners of the land may or may not be partners in the *phad*. The owners get a stipulated share from the receipts of the *gul* produced, after deducting *gurhal* expenses, as rent of the land.

A *phad* generally requires eight bullocks (i.e. four pairs, one pair for each *mot* in the series) and eight men (*four* mot drivers and four men to look after irrigation and other work in the field). A bullock unit is taken as equivalent to a man unit. A partner may contribute two bullocks and two men, another may contribute one bullock and one man, while a third may contribute either a bullock or a man and thus make up the number of units required. In a *four-mot phad*, therefore, they have to raise eight bullocks and eight man-shareholders. If five *mots* are to lift water, there will be ten bullocks and ten man-shareholders. Additional labour and the cost of manure are met by the shareholders in proportion to the number of shares contributed.

The water lifted by the first *mot* (or the one in the bed of the river) is led by a short channel to the second, then from the second to the third and so on, till it reaches the highest point from where the water is led to the fields by long channels.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation.

Co-operative lift-irrigation Societies, though of recent growth, are a remarkable development in the district. In the former Kolhapur State, no Society of this type was organised, though the spirit to work on co-operative lines for mutual benefit, as is disclosed by the *phad* system, did exist. In fact, the present co-operative development in Kolhapur district may to some extent be looked upon as a systematic expression of the already existing spirit of co-operation, and mutual help. Government encourage the organisation of co-operative lift irrigation schemes by granting financial and technical aid to societies undertaking such schemes. In Bombay State, a scheme for the organisation of, and financial assistance to, co-operative societies undertaking schemes of lift irrigation was first sanctioned in June 1949 and was continued throughout the period of the First Five-Year Plan. It has been decided to continue this activity during the period of the Second Five-Year Plan, with more emphasis on the consolidation of schemes already in hand rather than on the organisation of a large number of new societies.

At present there are in all 11 co-operative lift irrigation societies in the district. Information regarding the acreage under irrigation, estimated cost etc. is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 36.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Societies in Kolhapur District.

Serial No.	Name of village at which scheme is organised.	Name of river.	Area (in acres) under irrigation.	Estimated cost	Government financial assistance sanctioned.	
					Loan.	Subsidy.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Bubnal ..	Krishna ..	900	2,52,667	1,12,500	1,12,500
2	Inchnal ..	Hiranyakeshi	360	82,305	46,334	37,548
3	Waghapur .	Vedganga .	250	40,015	21,909	21,404
4	Chavare ..	Warna ..	2,092	5,94,200	2,87,950	2,24,760
5	Hingangaon	Warna ..	400	1,24,064	60,070	59,930
6	Udgaon ..	Krishna ..	725	1,84,703	60,415	60,415
7	Nadoli ..	Bhogavati ..	640	1,64,995	53,330	53,330
8	Kurukali ..	Do. ..	450	1,27,380	42,460	42,460
9	Kothali .	Do. .	520	1,47,409	43,155	43,155
10	Ghalwad ..	Krishna ..	700	1,96,169	58,330	58,330
11	Talsande ..	Warna ..	800	2,27,474	66,666	66,666
		Total .	7,837	21,51,091	8,53,119	7,80,498

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IRRIGATION.
Co-operative Lift Irrigation.

The position with regard to membership, share capital, reserve fund etc. of these societies is given below : —

(1) Membership	..	..	1731
(2) Share Capital	..	...	Rs. 5,11,805
(3) Reserve Fund	...	...	Rs. 7,637
(4) Working Capital	...	..	Rs. 17,01,967
(5) Government Financial Assistance (disbursed)—			
(a) Loan	..	...	Rs. 5,55,660
(b) Subsidy	..	..	Rs. 5,36,687

The schemes at Inchnal and Waghapur are complete in all respects and the societies are supplying water to their members since 1953-54. Most of the other schemes, including those at Bubnal and Hingangaon are also likely to be completed within a short time.

Co-operative Dam Construction Societies.

As has been already stated, six large rivers with their several tributaries flow through the district. The flow of water in some of them like *Bhogavati*, *Panchaganga* etc., is perennial. Several cultivators (in groups) have been constructing *kachha* dams (earthen dams) on rivers like the *Kumbhi*, *Kasari* and *Bhogavati*. Naturally, there is always the risk of these dams collapsing because of over-weight due to heavy transport in the busy season. Even otherwise they are washed away in natural course by the first moonsoon floods. They are again put up in the months of October-November every year. This process of constructing *kachha* dams every year involves physical labour as well as investment of large amounts. The idea of constructing pacca dams on co-operative basis has been put forward to avoid waste of physical labour as well as heavy expenditure every year. The *pacca* weir-*cum*-bridges are so constructed that they hold and impound water whenever required and allow the flood water to pass away without any damage to the dam itself. These are a permanent structure.

Aims and objects.—The main aims and objects of the co-operative dam construction societies are: (i) to construct *pacca dams* with a view to store sufficient water and thereby to facilitate the irrigation of lands situated within the area of operation of the dam ; (ii) to dig channels, to cut water courses, to lay out pipe lines for making supply of water convenient ; and (iii) to hire or purchase machinery, water pumps, plant etc., for the irrigation of the land.

Membership and Share Capital.—Firstly, a rough estimate of the total cost of the dam is made. One-third of the cost of the scheme is distributed *pro rata* on the acreage to be brought under irrigation and is collected accordingly as share capital. Two-third amount is made available by Government in the form of long-term loan. This is the financial assistance available under the Project Scheme. The Community Development Project Administration at Kolhapur has contemplated the construction of nine weir-*cum*-bridges, each costing about Rs. 2 lacs. The limit of entire share collection has been reduced to one-fourth of the total estimated cost of the scheme in the case of dam construction societies at Kale, Bajarbhogaon and Waloli as these villages are in backward tract.

The District Local Board, Kolhapur, has also given grants to some dam construction societies towards execution of the communication part of the scheme. Dam construction societies in non-project area do not get any financial assistance from Government. They have to collect the entire cost of the scheme from members by way of share capital.

Working.—The management of the society vests in the managing committee elected by the general body. It generally consists of seven to fifteen members. The committee appoints a manager and other salaried staff to carry out day to day work of the society. One surveyor is generally appointed to survey the lands situated round about the dam and to take a note of the irrigated area under different crops. He also takes a note of the cultivators cultivating the lands. The cultivators, either members or non-members, have to submit their application for drawing water before the end of January every year. The details of survey numbers, crops to be irrigated, etc. are to be stated in such application. All such applications are placed before the managing committee.

Cultivators have to pay water charges for the water used by them for irrigating their lands. Their rates are generally fixed on the basis of acreage irrigated for growing different crops. The water rates (per acre) generally charged are as under :—

Sugarcane—Rs. 20 to Rs. 35 for members.

Rs. 40 to Rs. 45 for non-members.

Other crops—Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 for members and non-members.

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IRRIGATION.
Co-operative Dam Construction Societies.

The position with regard to co-operative dam construction societies in the district was as under:—

No. of Societies		8
Membership		3,271
Acreage under irrigation		12,109
Estimated cost of the schemes ...	Rs.	14,96,953
Government Financial Assistance (Loan).	Rs.	6,81,353
Share Capital ..	Rs.	5,55,150
Reserve Fund	Rs.	20,667
Working Capital	Rs.	10,67,896
No. of Schemes completed		6

Co-operative lift irrigation and dam construction societies have proved their utility in stepping up agricultural production. During the period of the Second Five-Year Plan, the emphasis is intended to be laid more on consolidation than expansion; efforts may be made to convert single-purpose irrigation societies into multi-purpose units so that they will not merely be suppliers of water to their constituents but will also integrate all the economic activities ancillary to the main object of irrigation such as co-operative cultivation, marketing etc., with a view to ensure lasting economic benefits to the members in general.

Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Scheme.

This is the only major irrigation work in the district. The site of the scheme is located at the foot of the mountain ranges taking off on the eastern side of the continental divide of the Sahyadris. The locality gets an unfailing rainfall of about 200 inches during monsoon. The formation is of trap rock with a thin layer of earth. Rain water is all drained away into rivers which come in spate in monsoon and generally dry up in summer. The population in the catchment area is sparse. The area where the location of the head works of the Scheme is situated is thus very favourable for storing water to be utilised for the development of the district.

The *Bhogavati* river, which is bunded, used to be practically dry in the summer like other rivers and hence the villagers residing on its banks used to build earthen bunds across it at places along its course to hoard water. This water was not, however, sufficient. Crops, therefore, suffered for want of an assured supply of water. The soil on the banks of the river is suitable for sugarcane but cannot be utilised fully on account of want of water. The country is hilly, making it very expensive to have flow irrigation. The water in the river, therefore, is required to be lifted for being used for irrigation.

The Radhanagari Hydro Electric Reservoir which originally was intended to be used for storing water for irrigation was proposed to be used for generating electricity needed for lifting the water. As this reservoir offered a good opportunity to generate a large amount of power, the idea of developing the irrigation scheme into a hydel-cum-irrigation-cum-water-supply scheme (to Kolhapur town) was considered.

The scheme was originally started by the former Kolhapur State early in 1908 mainly as an irrigation scheme. The work went on slowly up to 1917 then the dam was constructed to a height of 40 feet. The work had to be suspended due to financial stringency but was resumed in 1919. However, construction activity gathered momentum only after 1946. The construction of the dam was almost complete in 1957. The completed portion of the scheme consists of :—

(1) A masonry dam 140′ high at the deepest portion of foundation.

(2) A power-house at the foot of the dam to generate electricity.

(3) Five weirs along the *Bhogavati* river.

(4) Installation of water pumps on the Panchaganga river.

The Dam.—The salient features of the project are given below :—

(1) Catchment area ..	42·5 square miles.
(2) Average rainfall ..	200 to 250 inches.
(3) Length of dam (including waste weir).	3,750 feet.
(4) Maximum Water level ...	1938·92 G T.S. Valve
(5) Capacity of tank .	8,450 M C. ft.
(6) Area of water spread .	7 miles.
(7) Maximum length of reservior.	10 miles.
(8) Length of periphery of the reservior.	55 miles.
(9) Maximum height of dam ...	140 feet.
(10) Height of dam over river-bed.	126 feet
(11) Top width of dam .	18-4 feet.
(12) Contents of dam ..	13·2 million cubic feet of masonry.

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IRRIGATION.
Radhanagari Hydro-electric Scheme.

The Power House.—The power-house is constructed at the foot of the dam. The generating unit insalled consisted of four low head feathering propeller type turbines and four vertical type generators of 1,200 K.W. capacity each, generating power at 6,600 Volts. There are there sub-stations of 3,311 K.V. between Radhanagari and Kolhapur.

Irrigation.—It has been already stated that irrigation on this scheme consists of lift irrigation. The area under command at a maximum lift of 80 feet is about 18,000 acres on the Bhogavati. The cultivable area is about two-thirds of the commanded area and, therefore, the irrigable area is about 12,000 acres. Against this, area actually irrigated in 1957 was about 8,000 acres.

To facilitate lift irrigation, a series of weirs have been constructed on the river. The weirs are about 12 feet high so that there is at least 4 or 5 feet depth of water everywhere in the river course. A series of openings 4 feet wide and piers 3 feet wide in-between the openings are provided throughout the length of the weir. A roadway is provided over the top of every weir by spanning these openings by R.C.C. slab, so that the weir serves as a means of communication as well. Water is stored by closing these openings by cut teak wood needles, inserted in the grooves in the openings. These needles are taken out at the time of floods to prevent silting and minimise the afflux during floods.

Lift irrigation is done by providing jack-wells on the banks of these rivers and pumping the water directly from the river. It is then let into the delivery chamber, through rising main, constructed at a higher place. The water is then distributed through channels.

The present design of jack-wells and the type of pumping sets used is new one. The pump house and the jack-well are located in the active stream of the river. (This is possible due to the presence of exposed rocks in the river at many places.) The pump used is a turbine pump with a direct-coupled electric motor by a vertical shaft. The motor is located directly on the pumps but above the high flood line. The pump is submerged below the headed level of the weir. The advantage of this set up is that all troubles due to inlet chamber and pipe are eliminated. On the other hand, the existing pumps in the Panchaganga valley are fixed below the flood line and, therefore, have to be shifted every time at the time of floods. There is no seasonal shifting of the pumps in works and so water can be given even during breaks in monsoon. This is not possible with the pumps of old type. There is a proposal of replacing the old pumps by new ones which will be erected on trestles.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Radhanagari Hydro-electric Scheme.

There are five weirs on the Bhogavati river. They are located at the following places. The cost of construction of each of these weirs is also given :—

Location of the weir.	Taluka.	Cost of construction.
		Rs.
Koge	Karvir	1,95,154
Haldi	Karvir	1,38,591
Radhivade	Karvir	1,60,051
Shirgaon	Radhanagari	1,57,072
Tarale	Radhanagari	1,44,969
	Total	7,95,837

The total area under command under these weirs is about 18,500 acres. So far about 10,000 acres of sugarcane have been brought under irrigation At present, in the Bhogavati valley (i.e. from Radhanagari to Kolhapur), lift irrigation is done by private pumps only. The water rates charged are Rs. 5 per acre both for sugarcane and food crops. (On the Panchaganga valley lift irrigation is done by Government pumps. The rates charged per acre are Rs. 40 for sugarcane and Rs. 10 for other crops.)

In addition to these five weirs on the Bhogavati river under Radhanagari Hydro Electric Scheme, it is proposed to instal ten additional pumps of four cusecs capacity each between Kolhapur and Shirol. These are proposed to be located at the following places :—

(1) 8 cusecs pumps at Chandur, Hatkanangle taluka.

(2) 8 cusecs pumps at Hupari, Hatkanangle taluka.

(3) 8 cusecs pumps at Rangoli, Hatkanangle taluka.

(4) 4 cusecs pumps at Herle, Hatkanangle taluka.

(5) 8 cusecs pumps at Rukadi, Hatkanangle taluka.

(6) 4 cusecs pumps at Kurundwad, Shirol taluka.

The installation of these pumps is almost over. The total area under command will be about 7,655 acres and the area actually irrigated will be about 1,600 acres.

Medium Irrigation Works.

Emergency Lift Irrigation Scheme.—This scheme was started by the Kolhapur State Government. It covers the area from Kolhapur to Shirol across the Panchaganga river. The scheme, which has been already completed, consists of five weirs of Rajaram, Surve, Rul, Terwad and Shirol. In addition to these five weirs, 36 pumps of 1 cusec capacity, 3 pumps of 5 cusecs capacity and one pump of 4 cusecs capacity have been installed. The total area under command is about 7,766 acres, while the average area actually irrigated was 3,123 acres.

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Among the other medium irrigation works under the charge of the P. W. D. are the tanks of Rajaram, Rankala and Vadgaon, a brief account of which has already been given.

Minor Irrigation Works.

One Crore Loan Programme.—This was a special programme of minor irrigation and 18 bandharas were constructed in Kolhapur district by the end of March 1953. A table showing the Minor Irrigation Works completed under this programme is given below :—

TABLE No. 37.

MINOR IRRIGATION WORKS UNDER ONE CRORE LOAN PROGRAMME.

Serial No.	Name of work.	Taluka/Mahal.	Cost of construction.	Area in acres. Commanded.	Area in acres. Actually irrigated.
			Rs.		A. g.
	Bandharas at :—				
1	Minche ..	Hatkangale ..	4,327	62	55 38
2	Shendri ..	Gadhinglaj ..	7,220	125	120 0
3	Kadgaon ..	Do. ..	4,938	66	60 0
4	Kapshi ..	Kagal ..	5,604	60	13 0
5	Vadgaon ..	Hatkanangale ..	6,216	75	20 0
6	Satve ..	Panhala ..	11,173	250	250 0
7	Dundge ..	Gadhinglaj ..	12,354	150	150 0
8	Ambap ..	Hatkanangale ..	10,928	105	105 0
9	Manpadale .	Do. ..	8,594	148	0 0
10	Arale ..	Panhala ..	5,722	200	0 0
11	Savarde ..	Radhanagari ..	9,306	100	60 0
12	Yekondi ..	Kagal ..	7,843	242	97 0
13	Sonarwadi ..	Gargoti ..	5,318	145	32 14
14	Vengrul ..	Do. ..	7,041	262	0 0
15	Pohale ..	Panhala ..	12,394	154	68 0
16	Nagaon ..	Hatkanangale ..	9,844	189	0 0
17	Hatkanangale ..	Do. ..	16,118	186	0 0
18	Jakhale ..	Panhala ..	9,183	125	0 0
		Total ..	1,54,132	2,644	1,037 7

Rs. 30 lakhs Loan Programme.—Construction of the following bandhara works was taken up and completed under this loan programme. A peculiar feature of this scheme is that a portion of the cost is recovered from the people by way of popular contribution:—

Name of the work	Taluka.	Expenditure incurred.	Area (in acres).
		Rs.	
(a) Bandharas at—			
(1) Halkarni ..	Gadhinglaj ..	34,501	200
(2) Shivangi Lakikkati	Chandgad ..	6,802	150
(3) Shinoli ..	Chandgad ..	6,385	170
(b) Repairs to Tank at Kowad	Chandgad ..	1,542	60

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

THERE ARE SEVERAL METHODS of obtaining the seed required for cultivation. Progressive cultivators pick selected earheads from healthy and vigorous plants in their fields and preserve the seed till the time of next sowing. With other cultivators, the common practice is to obtain the seed either from local merchants or from bigger cultivators who grow their own seed and have a surplus to sell. Tenant farmers of limited means borrow seed from their landlords and make repayment in kind after harvest, with some addition called *savai* or *didki*. The well-to-do cultivators bring the stock of their seed from localities renowned for the particular seed. For instance, *jirga* paddy comes from Ajra. Local vegetable seeds are grown by progressive farmers in the district. Foreign vegetables such as cabbage, cauliflower, knolkhol, etc. are imported and made available to cultivators. There are no seed farms in the district except government farms.

Fruit trees are generally propagated by grafts and seedlings which are obtained from the districts of Ratnagiri and Poona. Betel vine gardens are maintained for years together and cuttings for fresh vines are obtained from the garden itself. Tobacco and chilly seeds are obtained by the cultivator from his own field. Sugarcane sets are normally obtained from old plantations in the locality. A nursery for the supply of sugarcane sets is maintained at Kolhapur. There are subsidiary nurseries also, practically in every taluka.

The Department of Agriculture has been active in the work of propagating improved strains of paddy, wheat, and gram evolved at departmental research stations. The following strains (crop-wise) are under extension in the district:—

Crop.		Strain.
Paddy.	..	Patni No. 6.
		D-6-2-2.
		Panwel—61.
		Mugad—81
		Waksal—107.
		Antarsal—67
		Yelikirisal—4.
		Warangal—487.
Rabi Jowar	...	M-35-1.
Wheat	...	Kenphad.
Gram	...	Chaffa.
Sugarcane	...	Co-419.

The nuclear seed obtained from government farms is multiplied in a suitable locality on the fields either of registered or certified seed growers under official supervision. The produce of this seed is then preserved by the cultivator for further distribution either on exchange basis (for quantity to quantity) or with some increase in kind. depending upon the

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. SEED SUPPLY.

type of grain under exchange and the relations between the two cultivators. In the absence of exchange, seed growers are allowed to sell seeds in cash at current prices. Improved seeds were under distribution as a part of Grow More Food Campaign and have covered so far most of the area suitable for these crops. Improved strains of paddy, wheat and gram are giving fifteen per cent more yield than the local types. On account of good grain and uniform quantity, they also fetch higher prices.

The following table gives the figures regarding seed supply undertaken by the Department in 1954-55 and 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 38.

STATISTICS OF SEED SUPPLY FOR KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, 1954-55 AND 1955-56.

Name of Improved Seed.	Quantity distributed (in Bengali maunds).		Area covered (in acres).	
	1954-55	1955-56	1954-55	1955-56.
1. Paddy (Varieties)— Patani—6, Panvel—61, Waksal—207, Antarsal—67, Warangal—487, Mugad—81, Mugad—161, Yelikirisal—4	1,076 21	118 4	1,015	177
2. Rabi Jowar— M-35-1	.. 20	7	200	70
3. Wheat— Kanphad	.. 80 32	7 34	162	16
4. Gram— Chaffa	.. 54 6	15 23½	198	31

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

IN STEPPING UP AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, the importance of disseminating latest scientific information and imparting instructions in the latest methods of cultivation cannot be overemphasised. From this standpoint the existence of such facilities in the district itself is necessary and will thus help solve the difficulties of local farmers. In Kasaba Bavada is run the Shri Shahu Agricultural School where training in all aspects of agriculture is imparted. Since 1956, one Extension Training Centre is also run in Kasaba Bavada to meet the increased demand of trained personnel for National Extension Service Schemes. There are two research stations—one at Radhanagari for evolving suitable strains of paddy for this tract and one at Rajputwadi to carry on research in cultural and manurial practices of sugarcane. The Horticultural Nursery supplies grafts of various fruit trees and carries on the work of improving the mango gardens in the former Kolhapur State.

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MANURES.

FARMERS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, particularly those growing sugarcane, are well aware of the utility and importance of manuring their fields. They apply manures on a large scale, notwithstanding even their high prices. The common practice in this district is to manure the fields with cow dung, dung of sheep and goats, farm refuse and stable litter. Sheep folding is practised on a large scale. Cultivators also use on a large scale chemical fertilizers and manure mixtures distributed by the Department of Agriculture.

Indigenous manures are carefully hoarded and used throughout the district. In the eastern zone, where the rainfall is low and *kharif* jowar and groundnut are grown, about five cart loads of farm yard manure per acre are generally applied. Jowar, following the tobacco crop, hardly receives any manure. In rural areas, dung of cattle, sheep and goats, stable litter and village refuse are used for the purpose of manuring the fields. However, as about 30 to 40 per cent. of cow dung is commonly used as fuel, there is a dearth of it for manurial purposes. The dung and urine of sheep and goats are valuable manures. Owners of flocks of sheep and goats, usually *dhangars* who move from place to place, are paid in cash or kind for keeping the flocks overnight on the fields. It is estimated that about a thousand sheep and goats together give manure equal to five to six cart loads.

Compost Manures.

As a result of intensive propaganda carried on under the Grow More Food scheme, nowadays conversion of town and farm refuse into compost manure has become common. The following table shows the progress of work done in the district between 1951-52 and 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 39.

COMPOST MAKING IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56
Pits dug .. .	4,407	2,223	1,909	1,233	951
Pits filled—					
(a) Old	4,976	4,699	1,245	2,102	1,259
(b) New	4 407	2,223	910	976	747
Refilled pits	127	4,393	1,577	881	1,197
Emptied . ..	2,951	4,799	2,096	1,000	4,014
Number of villages in which work was carried out ..	317	281	304	306	288
Number of cultivators who took part.	2,331	1,302	1,418	706	612
Area covered (in acres) ..	1,175	2,399	1,048	500	2,007

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

MANURES.

Compost Manures.

Town refuse and night soil are utilised for making compost manure by some municipalities in the district. Their annual production is about 13,500 tons. This manure is sold by auction to cultivators and is used by them on a large scale.

Pits are dug and filled with farm refuse, cowdung, stable litter etc. in compartments and in a lot, depending upon the quantity available for composting and the contents are allowed to decompose. The manure so obtained ordinarily contains about 0·6 per cent. to 0·8 per cent. nitrogen.

Oil Cakes and Fertilisers.

The Agricultural Department of former Kolhapur State and later on, the Department of Agriculture for a few years, actually supplied groundnut cakes, manure mixtures and chemical fertilizers at concessional rates to farmers. They have now become quite popular and are easily available. The application of groundnut cakes and manure mixture to food crops has resulted in about 30 per cent. more yield over non-manured food crops. The district staff of the Department arrange for demonstrations on the plots manured with different manures and thus educate and convince the farmers about utility of scientific manuring. The district annually consumes about 15,000 tons of cake, 10,000 tons of sulphate of ammonia, 2,000 tons of manure mixtures, and about 1,000 tons of super-phosphates.

The quantity of manure to be applied varies from field to field and from crop to crop. Farm yard manure at the rate of 20 tons per acre is applied to irrigated crops like sugarcane, turmeric etc., and at the rate of 3 tons to non-irrigated crops. *Rabi* crops like wheat, gram and other pulses ordinarily receive no farm yard manure.

Groundnut, an important oilseed and cash crop of the district, is manured at the rate of 2·5 tons to 5 tons of farm yard manure per acre. Rice, the staple food crop of the district, is also manured at the above rate whenever possible. Top dressing of the manure mixture supplied by the Department of Agriculture containing oil cake, sulphate of ammonia and superphosphates in the ratio 4 : 1 : 2 and also that prepared locally in the same ratio, is applied to rice at the rate of 450 lbs. per acre. This mixture has become popular with cultivators. Many of them however apply only sulphate of ammonia at the rate of one bag (of 224 lbs.) per acre instead of manure mixture. Wheat crop is manured with sulphate of ammonia at the rate of one bag of 224 lbs. per acre. Pulses are generally not manured.

Sugarcane, the principal money crop of the district, is heavily manured. In Radhanagari, Karvir, and Panhala talukas and round about Kagal and Murgud in Kagal taluka, the usual

MANURES. Oil Cakes and Fertilisers.

practice is to apply 40 cart loads of farm yard manure or an equal quantity of town compost per acre as basal manure before planting the cane. Later on, two to three doses of groundnut cake and sulphate of ammonia are given. The first dose consists of one to two bags of only sulphate of ammonia which is applied two months after planting; second, about two months after the first one, consisting of sulphate of ammonia one bag and groundnut cake about five cwt.; and the third one at the time of earthing up, in May-June, and consisting of one or two bags of sulphate of ammonia and about 5 cwt. or more of groundnut cake. Thus, in all about 5 to 10 cwt. of sulphate of ammonia and half to one ton of groundnut cake are applied to the crops, depending upon the requirements of soil and availability of water for irrigating the crop. In the rest of the district, manuring by about 5 cwt. of sulphate of ammonia and half ton of cake is usually followed, though the method and quantity applied vary from place to place. The garden crops are always manured with farm yard manure and chemical fertilizers. Fruit crops like banana and guava are generally given 100 lbs. of farm yard manure and about 10-15 lbs. of groundnut cake per tree twice a year. All vegetable crops, and brinjals and onions in particular, are given good doses of farm yard manure and chemical fertilizers, as and when required.

PESTS.

PESTS : The details of the various pests of crops grown in the district are given below. The extent of damage done by the different pests cannot be accurately estimated, as it depends upon the severity of infestation in any particular year.

Of Cereals. *Bhatachya lombya kurtadnarya alya.*

Bhatachya lombua kurtadnarya alya, the swarming caterpillars (*spodoptera mauritia*), occasionally make a serious depredation on paddy in the *kharif* season. These insects feed on green foliage and destroy plants. The crop is protected by dusting with 10 per cent. benzenhexachloride (B.H.C.). The latter is more effective, though costly.

Bin Pankhi tol.

Bin pankhi tol, the wingless grasshopper of the Deccan (*colemania sphenariodes*), is a serious and widespread pest. These pests are active during the period from July to November and mostly attack the crops of paddy, jowar and bajri in the *kharif* season. It is effectively checked by dusting with 10 per cent. B.H.C. powder at the rate of 25 to 30 lbs. per acre.

Khod kida.

Khod kida, the stem-borer (*chillo zonellus*), is active from May to October and the damage done is occasionally reported as serious. These caterpillars bore into the central shoot of the plant and destroy it from within. In order to destroy this pest the stubbles of the previous crop are uprooted and burnt. The jowar *kadbi* should be cut into half inch bits for the purpose of storing. These hiberanating caterpillars are wholly destroyed from the fields by burying the jowar stubbles below ground 5" to 6" deep for about two months.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. PESTS. Of Cereals. *Khekda.*

Khekada, the crab (*paratelphusa guerini*; *gecarcinucus jacque montii*) is a serious pest of paddy in the western zone of the district. The crabs destroy the paddy crop during July, August and September. They can be destroyed by the application of cyano gas "A" dust at the rate of one tea spoonful per burrow or fumigating burrows with cyano gas by means of a foot pump; fumigation is done in the evenings.

Pikavaril kajave.

Pikavari kajave, the blister beetles (*zonabris pashilata*) are insects which have upper wings converted to hard wing cases, and attack the earheads of the bajri and paddy crop during the *kharif* season The damage done is occasionally serious. These beetles are collected by hand and destroyed.

Lod or Shirkid.

Lod or *shirkid*, army worms (*cirphis loreyi cirphis unipuncta*), are caterpillars and appear in swarms and destroy the green foliage of the crops. This pest is widely distributed in the district and is active during the *kharif* season. Occasionally it is serious. It can be controlled by thorough ploughing after the harvest in order to expose the pupae from the soil, by crushing the caterpillars lying in the central whorls of plants, and by dusting the affected crop with some stomach poison such as Paris green or strong B.H.C.

Sheda.

Sheda, rice hispa (*hispa armigera*). This beetle feeds on the leaves of the paddy plant. It also feeds on wild grasses and spends the cold season on the bunds and waste lands from where it invades the paddy fields by flight. It appears in March and passes through many generations. Damage is done to young and healthy dark green paddy crop. It is effectively checked by spray of 50 per cent. water dispersible B.H.C. 2 to 3 lbs. in 100 gallons of water.

Bhatache Khodatil kid.

Bhatache khodatil kid, the stem borer (*schoenobius incertellus*). This is a shoot boring caterpillar. Eggs are laid on the leaves and the caterpillar later bores into the stem. Young paddy is not much harmed but the later generations of the caterpillars check the developing ears which turn prematurely white. Rotation of crop, if possible and ploughing of stubbles after harvest of the crop, is the effective measure to check its spread.

Of Sugarcane. *Khod-kida.*

Khod-kida, the stem borer (*argyria sticticraspis*), is a pest widely distributed and attacks sugarcane seriously during the early stage of the crop. These caterpillars bore into the central shoots of the young cane and destroy it. In the early stages, if the attack is localised the affected canes are cut along with the caterpillars inside and destroyed.

Shende pokhornari ali.

Shende pokharanari ali, the top shoot borer (*scirpophaga nivella*), is a serious and widely distributed pest. These caterpillars bore into the stems and destroy the plant. Infestation

by this pest is noticed throughout the life of sugarcane. This pest is being controlled by collecting and destroying the egg masses and by encouraging egg parasites in the field. In the early stages, the affected shoots are cut from their bases along with the caterpillers and destroyed.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
PESTS
Of Sugarcane.
Shende pokharnari ali.

Usavaril tudtude.

Usavaril tudtude, the sugarcane leaf hopper (*pyrilla-sp.*) is a pest occasionally serious in sugarcane growing areas. It is very rarely seen in this district. The eggs laid in the cold season hibernate and, from May to December, all stages of the pest are seen on the cane. The adults and nymphs suck the leaves and devitalise the cane. The egg masses are crushed by hand. After the harvest of the infested crop, the trash is burnt. The egg parasites are encouraged in the sugarcane fields. In the case of localised attack, spraying with nicotine sulphate is also found beneficial.

Of Fruits and Vegetables.
Bhirud.

Bhirud, the mango stem-borer (*batocera rubus*) is a widely distributed pest in the district and sometimes it assumes serious proportions. The larvae tunnels into the stem and branches. If young plants are infested, the plants are destroyed. The ways of controlling this pest include extraction of the larvae from the tunnels by means of a thick beat wire, cleaning of larval burrows and fumigation of the bore with a solution consisting of carbon disuplhide and petrol in equal proportion.

Tudtude.

Tudtude, the mango hoppers (*indiocerus-spp.*), do considerable damage to the mango inflorescence. The pest is active from December to March. Although it appears every year, sometimes it assumes serious importance. The pest is very widely distributed. The nymphs and adults desap the young inflorescence, with the result that the tender developing fruits fall down prematurely. Dusting with five per cent. D.D.T. and sulphur dust mixed in equal quantity is found to be effective in controlling this pest.

Devi.

Devi, the scale insect (*aspidiotus sp.*), usually attacks citrus fruits such as lemons and *mosambi*. These insects are covered with a shell of secretory material over their bodies and suck the sap from various parts of the plant and the developing fruits and cause considerable damage to the crop. The only effective measure of controlling these insects is to spray the plants with a resin compound.

Mava.

Mava, the vegetable aphids. It is a very widely distributed pest and consists of a number of species. Different species infest a number of different vegetables, such as cabbage, *navalkol*, peas, radish and brinjals during September-March This pest has been effectively controlled by spraying (i) fish oil resin soap, (ii) tobacco decoction or nicotine sulphate and (iii) pyrocolloid solution in the proportion of 1 in 800 parts of water. Fifty wetable B.H.C. is also very effective.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. PESTS Of Fruits and Vegetables. *Mulya kurtadnarya alya.*

Mulya kurtadnarya alya, the cut worm (*agrotis sp.*), generally attacks cruciferous plants, tomato, potato and chilly. Occasionally, the pest assumes serious importance. The larvae cut the growing plants at their collars and feed on the green foliage of the cut plants. It is a usual practice to trap these worms in dry grass heaps. In the early morning dry grasses are heaped at various places in the infested fields. During the hot part of the day the larvae seek shelter under such heaps, which along with the caterpillars are destroyed in the evening. Frequent interculturing and stirring up the soil also helps to check this pest. Poison baits are also found useful.

Phal mashi.

Phal mashi, the fruit fly (*chaetodacus sp.*), is a major pest, occasionally reported as serious, on cucurbits, mango and guava in the fruiting season. These maggots feed into the ripening fruits and damage them. The flies are trapped and destroyed. The affected fruits are removed from the trees and destroyed. In order to check further infestation, spot spraying on the crop with tartar emetic may be adopted.

Tambade mungle.

Tambade mungle, the red ants (*oecophylla smargdina*), are a great menace to the gardeners particularly at the time of harvest and other operations in the fruit orchards, especially in mango gardens. Their incidence is due to the presence of mealy bugs on the plants. Red ants have been controlled by dusting with ten per cent. B.H.C.

Thrips.

Thrips (*thrips tabacci*), occasionally attack seriously vegetable crops such as onions, chillies and potatoes. These insects feed on the green leaves and shoots, with the result that the leaves turn yellow and dry up. Spraying the affected crop with tobacco decoction is found effective.

Tomato pokharnari ali.

Tomato pokharnari ali, the tomato fruit-borer (*heliothes obsoleta*). These caterpillars are recently reported as serious pest at times on tomato fruits. The larvae bore into the fruits and destroy them. Spraying the tomato plants with lead arsenate is found effective. The fruits from the treated plants should be washed before they are sent to the market.

Wangi pokharnari ali.

Wangi pokharnari ali, the brinjal fruit borer (*leucinodes orbonelis*), is a major pest of the brinjal with a wide distribution in the district. Brinjal is the only fruit vegetable grown in the district throughout the year on a large scale. The fruits are bored and destroyed by the caterpillars. The affected shoots and fruits are clipped off and destroyed along with the insects. The infested crop is sprayed with lead arsenate. The fruits from such plants should be washed before sending to market.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
PESTS.
Others.
Undir.

Undir, the rat. This rodent is a pest of cultivated crops such as paddy, wheat, groundnut and sweet potatoes in the fields and stored grains in the godowns and houses. In the fields, the rats are destroyed by hunting, trapping and poison baiting with barium carbonte, white arsenic or zinc phosphide. In the houses and godowns, the rat burrows are successfully fumigated with cynao gas powder to kill the rats inside.

Valvi.

Valvi, the white ants. Occasionally white ants are reported as infesting roots of field crops such as wheat, jowar, bajri and sugarcane. The pest is widespread and active throughout the year. If the pest is of a mound-forming specie, the ant-hill is dug and the queen ant is killed. Poison baiting with Paris green and wheat bran is also effective. Application of crude oil to irrigation water also helps to drive out the white ants from the infested fields.

Vanar.

Vanar, the monkeys. Losses on account of monkeys are serious at times in the district, especially on the adjoining hills. Damage is done not only to fruits but also to grain crops.

Pigs.

The damage caused by wild animals is not much as these animals are rarely found in the district. Wild pigs are great enemies of the crops in the hilly areas (especially paddy and sugarcane).

DISEASES.

DISEASES : In addition to the damage done by pests, the crops in the Kolhapur district suffer from various diseases. Given below is a brief description of each of the important diseases affecting the important crops of the district.

Of Cereals.
Kani, the jowar smut.

Kani, the jowar smut (*spucelotheca sorghi*). Individual grains in the ears get enlarged, the outer covering remaining in tact, the contents are replaced by blackish-brown powdery mass. The best treatment to check this disease consists of treatment with fine sulphur powder before sowing, the cost of which works out at hardly an anna per acre.

Kani, the wheat smut.

Kani, the loose smut of wheat (*ustilago tritici*). This disease is confined to wheat crop only, and the damage done is negligible. Solar heat treatment of the seed before sowing effectively controls and minimises the chances of the crop from being affected by this disease.

Karpa.

Karpa, the blast of rice, (*piricularia oryzae*) This disease has assumed large proportions in the district, especially in the heavy rainfall tracts. Considerable damage is done wherever it occurs. Seed treatment with Perenox, before sowing, and also spraying the crop with its solution is recommended and found effective.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
DISEASES.
Of Cereals.
Tambera.

Tambera, the rust (*puccima graminis tritici*). This disease occurs generally in wheat fields. Late rains are favourable to this disease. The rust resistant strain viz., *kenphad* is being distributed to replace the local as well as the *khapli* varieties which are also attacked by this disease.

Of Fruits and Vegetables.

The following diseases affect fruits and vegetables ·

Bhuri, of mango.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew of mango (*oidium mangiferae*) This affects the blossoms of mango. It occurs simultaneously with hoppers and causes severe blighting of blossoms during January and February. This disease is very effectively controlled by the application of fine sulphur dust to the blossoms at intervals of a fortnight. From three to five applications during the season, beginning with the blossoming period, are sufficient.

Bhuri, of peas.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew of peas (*erysiphe polygoni*). This disease is locally known as *taka* and is a limiting factor in the cultivation of peas. The disease appears in the *rabi* crop at the time of flowering and the yield reduces considerably. It has been successfully controlled by one application of fine sulphur dust at flowering time at the rate of about 25 lbs. per acre.

Dinkya.

Dinkya, the fummosis of citrus (*phytophthora palmivora*). This disease occurs on lemon trees in the district, though on rare occasions. Ring irrigation is an important preventive measure. The gum is treated with creosote oil.

Kevada.

Kevada, the yellow vein mosaic of *bhendi* is a virus disease; both the *kharif* and *rabi* crops of *bhendi* suffer from it. It is very destructive and widespread and causes much damage to the crop. It is highly infectious and is transmitted by the white fly. Systematic roguing and destruction of all affected plants in the season effectively controls the disease.

Kobi kujane.

Kobi kujane, the blackrot of cabbage (*xanthomonas campestris*). This a bacterial disease and takes serious proportions in contaminated soil. The disease is seedborne and is amenable to seed treatment with mercuric perchloride solution. This treatment is adopted on a limited scale only and is not for general application.

Mar, of brinjals.

Mar, the wilt in brinjals (*verticillium dahliae*). Brinjal crop suffers seriously from this disease. It is a high temperature disease. The damage, therefore, depends upon the soil temperature.

Mar, the fruit rot.

Mar, the fruit rot. This disease is found in chillies, causing shedding of flowers and dieback of branches. It spreads during October-December. Spraying twice with 0·3 per cent. Perenox or one per cent. Bordeaux mixture in October-December controls the disease.

DISEASES. Of Fruits and Vegetables. *Tikka.*

Tikka, the leaf spots in groundnut (*cercospora personata*). Small yellowish spots appear on the leaves. These spots become larger and larger, and ultimately make the leaves look yellowish brown. These leaves drop off and weeken the plants; pod formation is, therefore, arrested. Spraying the undersurface with 0·3 per cent. Perenox helps to control this disease.

CROP ROTATIONS.

CROP ROTATIONS: The value of a change in cropping is well known. Variations in rainfall influence cropping system in a place considerably. One finds vast differences in cropping systems from west to east in the district. Three distinct zones are observed in Kolhapur district, viz. (i) the western zone getting plenty of rainfall; (ii) the central zone, receiving moderate but assured rainfall; (iii) the eastern zone, receiving uncertain rainfall. The systems of cropping, though much the same within a zone, differ considerably from zone to zone.

Western Zone.

The western zone comprise the talukas of Shahuwadi, Radhanagri, Bhudargad, Ajra, Bavada and a part of Panhala. The following are the rotations followed in this zone.

Paddy is the main crop and is grown every year, except (i) on the low-lying areas where *val*, field peas or gram are grown in the *rabi* season and (ii) in river valleys and on the banks of the rivers where sugarcane, wheat and vegetables are grown after the harvest of paddy crop. On light and slopy soils *ragi* (*nachani*), *vari*, *sava*, *rale* or niger is grown every year for two to three years and then left fallow for about two years. In the case of heavy soils, where *ragi* is grown, it is rotated with groundnut and *kharif* jowar next year.

Central Zone.

The central zone comprises the talukas of Gadhinglaj and western part of Karvir and Kagal and eastern part of Panhala mahal. The major crops of this zone are *kharif* jowar and paddy. Jowar follows groundnut next year. Paddy is followed by sugarcane in the river valleys and in tracts with assured water supply. In the soils with moisture, field peas or gram is taken in the *rabi* season after paddy. In the areas, with seasonal water supply, wheat and vegetables are taken in the *rabi* season.

Eastern Zone.

The eastern zone comprises the talukas of Hatkanangle, Shirol, Eastern part of Karvir and Kagal. *Kharif* jowar and groundnut are the major crops of this zone. Tobacco and chillies are other important crops of this zone. Wells are the main source of irrigation in this tract. On good black soils *kharif jowar* is rotated with tobacco in the next *kharif* season. On lighter soils and in certain heavy soil areas, groundnut follows next. Paddy is also grown under irrigation in this zone. *Khapli* wheat, gram or vegetables follow paddy in the

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

CROP ROTATIONS. Eastern Zone.

rabi season. *Khapli* wheat and gram follow after chillies, in the *rabi* season in certain parts of this zone where seasonal irrigation facilities are available; otherwise groundnut or *kharif* jowar is taken next in the *kharif* season.

CROP MIXTURES.

CROP MIXTURES: Mixtures are common throughout the district. In the western zone, blackgram is mixed with *sava*, *kulthi* with *ragi* and *chavali* with groundnut on lighter soils. On the bunds of paddy, *kharif* jowar and *pavata* are also grown in this zone. In the central zone, *kharif* jowar is mixed with *udid* and *mug*, in the ratio 7 : 1 or 3 : 1; mixture of paddy and *kharif* jowar, in the ratio 3 : 2 is also taken. Another mixture of groundnut and *kharif* jowar is also taken in the same ratio. In the eastern zone, mixtures taken are *kharif* jowar and groundnut in the ratio 2 : 3; *kharif* jowar is mixed, in certain parts, with bajri, or with black gram or *mug* or *tur*. *Tur* is also mixed with groundnut in the ratio 1 : 3. The mixture of chillies and cotton is taken in the areas growing chillies. Cotton seed is dibbled in the month of August in between the two chilly plants in a row. Maize is invariably taken as a mixed catch crop in irrigated areas, both in turmeric and sugarcane, in Kolhapur district.

TENURES.

TENURES: In Kolhapur district, the most prevalent form of land tenure is *rayatwari* tenure and the area occupied under it in 1952-53 was 16,46,149 acres as against an area of 85,358 acres (about five per cent. of occupied land) under *non-rayatwari* (*inam*) tenure. No land is exempt from paying land revenue except under tenures of contract or agreement or under the terms of any Act of the Legislature. In the *Rayatwari* tenure, land revenue is fixed not upon an estate as a whole or on a village as a whole, but on individual survey numbers or sub-divisions of those numbers. Under *inam* tenure, the land is held on a reduced assessment which is not liable to revision and in some cases it is even free from any assessment. The land revenue assessments are fixed under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code as amended from time to time. Assessment is based not only on advantages arising from rainfall or the kind of crop sown but also on advantages arising from soil, water resources and location. It is on account of this that agricultural lands are divided into three main classes, viz., dry crop, rice, and garden lands; and the classification value of soils of different grades of productivity are fixed in terms of annas. Land revenue settlements are ordinarily made every 30 years for a taluka. The lands used for agriculture are divided into groups on considerations of physical features and other factors mentioned in section 117-G of the Land Revenue Code. The assessment is fixed on survey numbers and sub-divisions of these numbers on the basis of standard rates fixed for the group as the result of a settlement or revision settlement made in accordance with the rules laid down in the Land Revenue Code. In the case of an original settlement, the standard rate

fixed for a group should not exceed thirty-five per cent. of the average rental values of all occupied lands in the group for a period of five years preceding immediately the year in which the settlement is directed. In the case of a revision settlement, the existing aggregate assessment should not be increased by more than twenty per cent. in the case of a taluka or a group or by more than fifty per cent. in the case of survey number or a sub-division of it. These limits can be relaxed in special cases such as highly irrigated areas. Government may declare, when a settlement is effected, that the assessment has been fixed with reference to specified prices of specified classes of agricultural produce. When such a declaration has been made, the State Government may reduce or enhance the assessment in the area concerned by granting a rebate or placing a surcharge on the assessment by reference to the alteration of the prices of the classes of agricultural produce specified in the declaration.

The assessment fixed under the settlement is not collected in full in all years. In the years of distress, suspension of half or full land revenue is given on the basis of the condition of crops. The annual land revenue demand is then fixed on the basis of *annewari* which means an estimate of yield of crops in a particular year relative to the standard normal yield which is equated to sixteen annas. The land revenue thus suspended in one year becomes due for recovery in the next or subsequent years if the crops are satisfactory. In case there is a succession of bad seasons, suspensions more than three years old are turned into remissions.

The occupant holds his lands direct from the Government. He has a right to hold the land in perpetuity so long as he pays the land revenue to Government as fixed at the settlement. He has full powers to sell, mortgage, sub-let or otherwise dispose of the land.

Before 1st May 1949, the date on which the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948 (No. LXVII of 1948) was made applicable to this district, the occupant of a land could lease a portion or whole of his holding on annual tenancy at a rent agreed upon with the tenant. But this right has been restricted by the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, under which all tenancies were given a duration of a minimum of ten years. The maximum rent was also fixed. By the Amending Act of 1955, this right has been further restricted. No tenancy of any land is to be terminated merely on the ground that the period fixed by an agreement or usage for its duration has expired. Moreover, the rates of rent payable by the tenant have also been fixed within the maximum and minimum limits on the basis of assessment of land namely that the rent shall not exceed five times the assessment payable in respect of the land or Rs. 20 per acre, whichever is less and shall not be less than twice the assessment.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. TENURES.

A modified form of the *rayatwari* tenure, known as "new tenure" was introduced in 1901. This form of tenure applies only to new occupancies granted. Under this tenure, lands are granted at concessional rates of occupancy price only to *bona fide* cultivators belonging to backward classes and that too on condition that the land shall not be transferred except with the permission of the Collector. Of course, the land is subject to the usual land revenue.

Inam Tenure.

There is then the *Inam* tenure.* Land under the tenure is technically called "alienated land" which means "transferred in so far as the rights of Government to payment of the rent or land revenue, are concerned wholly or partially, to the ownership of any person", as defined in the Land Revenue Code. The main feature of this tenure is that the land is held on a reduced assessment not liable to revision and in some cases held even free from assessment. The *inam* lands have now been settled on their present holders under the Survey Settlement Act of 1863. These inam lands can be classified under four heads as follows :—

Personal Inams.

Personal or "*jat*" *Inams.* These are gifts conferred on individuals. Some of them are in the nature of compensations. These are heritable and transferable properties of the holders or their lawful successors subject to payment of fixed dues to the Government.

Political Inams.

Political inams, including *saranjams* and *jahagirs*, generally mean grants by the State for performance of civil or military duty or for the maintenance of the personal dignity of nobles and high officials. Some of them were guaranteed by a special treaty between the Moghals and the British Government while others were settled by the Inam Commission. In the former case, the tenure is hereditary and is to last in perpetuity, while in the latter case, it is to last for a short or long period of time

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* With effect from 1st May 1951, all Kulkarni Watans along with the right of service were abolished by the Bombay Pargana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act (No. LX of 1950). By the Bombay Personal Inam Abolition Act (No. XLII of 1953), which came into effect on 28th June 1953, all personal Inams are extinguished in the case of personal inams consisting of exemptions from the payment of land revenue only either wholly or in part, if the amount of such exemption is or exceeds Rs. 5,000 with effect from 1st day of August 1953 and in all other cases with effect from first day of August 1955. By the Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) Abolition Act of 1953, the service *inams* following under this category have been abolished with effect from 1st August 1954. The Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagirs Abolition) Act, 1953, (No. XXXIX of 1954) has come into force with effect from 1st August 1953 and 217 entirely alienated villages stood resumed to Government in this district. The Bombay Merged Territories Miscellaneous Alienations Act, 1955 (No. XXII of 1955 has been made applicable to this district with effect from 1st August 1955 and Patil, Gao-Sanadi and Devasthan Inam lands have been saved from the operation of this Act). The Bombay Saranjams, jahagirs and other inams of political nature Resumption Rules, 1952 are made applicable to this district with effect from 1st November 1952. The Saranjam grant at village Akiwat and Shedshal in Shirol Taluka has been decided as "grant of soil" and "grant of revenue" respectively. The Bombay Kauli and Katuban Tenure (Abolition) Act, 1953 (No. XLIV of 1953), is made applicable to three villages in Ajara Mahal of this district.

as fixed by the commission. Ordinarily these *inams* are impartible and inalienable. There have been instances in which a *jahagir* has been held to be partible and alienable but generally devolution of such *inams* is by the rule of lineal primogeniture, younger members being entitled only to maintenance.

Devasthan Inams.

These are lands granted to religious bodies for maintenance of temples and mosques or similar institutions. The grant is made in perpetuity and the fixed amount of land revenue is not liable to revision. *Devasthan inams* are ordinarily inalienable and also impartible. Succession to them is regulated by the terms of the grant and the customs and usages of the endowments. The holder for the time being manages the *inam* in the capacity of a trustee for the benefit of the endowment.

Service Inams.

These are holdings of lands or rights to receive cash payments or to levy customary fees or perquisites for the performance of certain services to Government or the community. The holders of such *inams* or *watans* are divided into two classes—firstly, district officers like *desais*, *deshmukhs*, or *deshpandes* who were the chief instruments for the collection of revenue under the Peshwas and secondly, village officers useful to the Government like the *patil* or the *kulkarni* who were provided adequate remuneration in the shape of lands or cash, and village servants useful to the communities such as the *hajams*, *kumbhars*, *lohars*, *sutars*, *mochis* etc., and other village artisans.

TENANCY.

Cultivation of lands by tenants prevails in *inam* lands and in *rayatwari* areas, although to a larger extent in the former than in the latter. Lease of lands to tenants occurs mainly because of landlords leaving the village for better employment in cities. The transfer of lands to non-cultivating creditors has also tended to produce the same effect. These tendencies are brought out in the quinquennial statement of holdings in the district for the year 1952-53. In 1952-53 out of total area of 1,15,630 acres *under *inam* tenure in the Kolhapur district as much as 62,210 acres or about 54 per cent. was in the hands of non-agriculturists receiving rent from the tenants cultivating the land. In the total area under *Khalsa* tenure viz., 6,99,848 acres, where the rayatwari system prevailed, land held by non-agriculturists was estimated at 1,58,260 acres or about 23 per cent. of the total. Besides the non-agriculturist holders, sometimes even agriculturists holding very large areas leased out portions of their land, finding it more profitable to do so than to cultivate the land themselves.

Systems.

According to the Manual of Revenue Accounts, four modes of tenant cultivation are in operation in the district, namely, cash rent, crop share rent, a fixed quantity of produce as rent and a rent in service involving mixture of the foregoing forms

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* For details, refer Table No. 19 on page.

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of rent. The terms of contract vary in each case. The cash rent and the crop share rent are the two main forms of rent. Cash rents are preferred by the absentee landlords who usually reside in towns. Cash rents are also usually paid for grass and garden lands. The holders who reside in the villages usually rent out the lands on the crop-share basis.

Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948.

Before 1st May 1949 i.e., the date on which the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, was made applicable to this district, the relations between landlords and tenants were governed by the provisions of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879, which was applicable to the former Kolhapur State inclusive of jagirs in spirit. It was found that these provisions did not ensure equality of status to the tenant with the superior holder in the matters of contract or agreement. Many tenants who held the same lands for generations had no right of permanency but continued to be tenants—at-will, liable to be deprived of their tenancy at the will of their landlords. In the absence of any legislation for the protection of the tenants, rack renting was a familiar mode of exploitation of tenants by the landlord.

The application of this Act to this district ameliorated the condition of the tenants without injuring the legitimate interest of the landlords. From 1st May 1950, every tenant was deemed to be a "protected tenant" for the purpose of the Act unless his landlord had prior to that date, made an application to the mamlatdar for declaration that the tenant is not a "protected tenant". Such tenants could not be evicted unless they ceased to cultivate the land personally or the landlord himself wanted to cultivate the land personally. It provided for the fixing of reasonable rent. Fresh leases were required to be of ten years' duration.

This Act had statutorily fixed the maximum rate of rent at one-third and one-fourth of the total produce in the case of non-irrigated lands and irrigated lands respectively. It gave powers to the Government to fix rent at a rate lower than the maximum. The right of a landlord to terminate the tenancy of a protected tenant for the purpose of taking over the land for his personal cultivation was limited by the Act; he could not terminate the tenancy if he was already cultivating other land, fifty acres or more in area; and if he was cultivating less than fifty acres, the right was limited to such area as would be sufficient to make up the area for his personal cultivation to the extent of fifty acres. The protected tenant was also given a valuable right; he could not purchase his holding from the landlord at a reasonable price, provided that thereby his own holding was not increased to more than fifty acres. The onus of continuing a protected tenancy to the heirs of a deceased protected tenant was shifted to the landlord. Other important provisions of the

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Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948.

Act were the ones which enabled Government to assume management of the estate of a landholder for the purpose of improving the economic and social conditions of peasants or for ensuring the full and efficient use of land for agriculture. A provision was made for the payment, to the lawful holders of the net surplus in respect of estates taken over for management after deductions of the appropriate costs incurred by Government and the amount, if any, required for the liquidation of debts and liabilities. The Act prohibited transfer of agricultural lands to non-agriculturists, but the Collector might permit such transfers in exceptional cases. The landholder had to transfer his agricultural lands to persons in the following priority :—(1) the tenant in actual possession of the land (ii) the person or persons personally cultivating any land adjacent to the land to be sold (iii) a co-operative farming society, (iv) any other agriculturist and (v) any other person who had obtained from the Collector a certificate that he intended to take the profession of agriculture.

During the year 1952-53, there were 55,302 protected tenants, 56,910 ordinary tenants and 1,34,912 owner cultivators in the Kolhapur district. The following table gives the number of applications filed annually under the Tenancy Act since 1949-50 (up to 1956-57):—

TABLE No. 40.

STATISTICS OF APPLICATIONS FILED UNDER THE TENANCY ACT IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Year.	No. of cases filed.	No. of cases disposed of.	No. of cases pending.	No. of cases decided in favour of tenants.	No. of cases decided in favour of land-lords.	The rest.
1949-50 ..	1,158	905	253	785	116	4
1950-51 ..	5,957	5,602	546	3,573	1,903	96
1951-52 .	1,520	1,920	148	899	946	72
1952-53 ..	1,798	1,536	408	668	815	53
1953-54 ..	2,101	1,935	574	1,060	748	127
1954-55 ..	2,065	2,500	970	1,540	1,000	20
1955-56 ..	5,243	4,152	2,070	2,544	1,511	97
1956-57 ..	25,267	8,627	18,710	7,025	1,581	21

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TENANCY.
The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

Between 1948 and 1954 many important amendments were made to the Act. However, the main objective of making the tiller of the soil the owner had been slow in fulfilment. It was held that though the number of holders having proprietary interests in lands was quite large, the number of cultivators, who are mere tenants, is also quite significant and that their status should be raised from that of mere tenancy to full occupancy.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955 was passed with a view to (i) vesting occupancy rights in lands in the tiller of the soil, (ii) redistributing land by the imposition of ceilings on individual holdings and (iii) providing the facility to the small holders to acquire lands, as far as practicable, upto the economic holding.

Land to the cultivating tenant.—The most important feature of the amending Act is that which deals with tenants' right to purchase the land they cultivate. It lays down that, on April 1, 1957, also called the "Tillers' Day", all the tenants who cultivate personally, subject to certain conditions and exemptions, would be deemed to have purchased the land cultivated by them from the landlords upto the ceiling area at the price to be fixed by the Agricultural Land Tribunal. In computing the ceiling area the land owned by the tenant is also taken into consideration. Thus the tenant would be permitted to purchase under the Act only so much of land as would raise the total area held by him upto the ceiling limit. The provisions regarding the compulsory purchase is to be implemented by the Agricultural Land Tribunal after holding an enquiry in the manner prescribed. The purchase price would be fixed at six times the rent in the case of permanent tenants and between 20 to 200 times the assessment in respect of other tenants. In case of tenants other than permanent tenants the value of improvements effected by the landlord is also to be added to the price of land. The price so fixed is to be ordinarily paid by the permanent tenant in one lump sum within an year of purchase ; other tenants have been given an option to pay the purchase price either in one lump sum or in annual instalments not exceeding 12 with simple interest at the rate of 4½ per cent. It may be noted that in the case of a new tenancy created after the "Tillers' Day", the tenant is entitled to the right to purchase the land cultivated by him within one year from the commencement of the tenancy. The number of tenants who acquired rights of purchase of land on the Tillers' Day was 36,800. The estimated area held by them on that day was 64,890 acres.

In case a tenant does not intend to purchase land, or fails to exercise the right to purchase the land within the specified period, the Collector has been empowered to terminate the tenancy and to summarily evict the tenant. The land cultivated

TENANCY.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

by the evicted tenant would revert to the landlord. If he holds land which is less than the ceiling area then, subject to certain conditions, the landlord is entitled to retain only so much area as will be sufficient to raise the area in his possession up to the ceiling. The land in excess of the ceiling area would be disposed of to other persons with due regard to the order of priority stipulated in the Act.

Mention must also be made of the provision by virtue of which no tenancy of any land is liable to termination merely by efflux of time. The rents, which are made payable in cash only, will be payable by the tenant at a rate which will be fixed by the Mamlatdar for a village or a group of villages within the maximum and minimum limits laid down in the Act. These maximum and minimum limits in the case of areas which are surveyed and settled or in which assessment has been fixed are prescribed at five times the assessment or Rs. 20 per acre whichever is less, and at two times the assessment, respectively. The liability of paying land revenue, local fund cess and irrigation cess in respect of the land is transferred to the tenant. But if in any year, the aggregate of the rent, land revenue and local fund cess exceeds the cash value of 1/6th of the produce for that year, the tenant is entitled to deduct from the rent of that year the amount so in excess. It may be noted that as a result of the extension of the special rights conferred on protected tenants to all tenants in general the distinction between the protected and the ordinary tenant has thus been removed. A landlord who intends to resume land for personal cultivation can eject a protected or ordinary tenant subject to certain conditions, provided he had served a notice on the tenant for resumption before December 31, 1956. He was also to make application for the possession of land by 31st March 1957 In all 38,395 notices were issued by the landlords to their respective tenants. As against this 2,008 applications were received from the landlords. By 31st July 1958, 14,858 applications had been disposed of and in 502 cases of possession of lands (about 1,727 acres in area) was ordered to be given to the landlords by the tenancy courts. If the landlord failed to cultivate the land personally, the original tenant would acquire the right of purchase. In all cases of evictions, however, the tenant, who is affected, should be left with an area which is equal to or more than half the area leased to him previously.

Ceiling on holdings.—For the purposes of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act as amended, an economic holding is defined as (i) 16 acres of *jirayat* land, or (ii) 8 acres of seasonally irrigated land or paddy or rice land or (iii) 4 acres of perennially irrigated land. The ceiling limit on individual holdings is stipulated at three times the economic holding. It was provided that from the appointed day, i.e., June, 15, 1955 it would not be lawful for any person to hold land in excess of

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The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

the ceiling area. This restriction is, however, not applicable to the holding under personal cultivation of a landowner on the appointed day. If between the period January 1, 1952 and the date of coming into force of the amended Act i.e., August 1, 1956, the landlord had acquired by surrender from his tenant any area and, if his holding immediately preceding January 1, 1952 was equal to or more than twice the ceiling area, then the whole of such land acquired by surrender is to be at the disposal of the Collector.

Transfers and disposal of land in future.—Apart from empowering the Mamlatdar to inquire into the *bona fides* of all transfers of land effected between June 15 1955 and the commencement of the Act i.e., August 1, 1956, certain restrictions are laid down regarding the future transfers of agricultural land. Land purchased by tenants under the provisions of this Act can only be transferred with the permission of the Collector. Any surplus land, or the land the purchase of which has become ineffective on the failure of the tenant to pay the price or the land left with the landlord owing to tenant's unwillingness to exercise his right of purchase is placed at the disposal of the Collector of the district. As already stated, the Collector has to sell such land in accordance with the priority list prescribed in the Act. Land cannot be transferred, sold or mortgaged to a person who is not an agriculturist. Further, where a landlord intends to sell any land, he has to apply to the Agricultural Lands Tribunal for determination of reasonable price. After the determination of reasonable price, the land has to be offered according to the order of priority stipulated in the Act.

Exemption in respect of co-operatives.—The amendment Act has provided for some exemptions in respect of co-operatives. Some of the provisions regulating the relationship between landlord and tenant, as also those relating to restrictions on transfer of land, are not applicable to lands held or leased by co-operatives.

As the land to be purchased by the tenant would be valued at rates specified in the Act, the land mortgage banks in the State envisaged difficulties in recovery of loans already given to non-cultivating landlords who would be relinquishing their rights in land in favour of tenants with effect from the "Tillers' Day". These institutions also found it difficult to advance loans on the basis of valuation of lands followed by them so far In view of these difficulties, the Government of Bombay, in their Resolution, dated April 3, 1956, decided to guarantee, subject to certain conditions the losses to the extent of two per cent. of the amount of loans granted or the actual losses suffered by the Bombay Provincial Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank as a result *only* of land values going down, whichever is less. Firstly, the Land Mortgage Banks have

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been asked to advance loans only to those borrowers who own the lands to be offered as security for the loans and who also cultivate these lands. Secondly, these institutions have been asked to value the lands either at 120 times the assessment of on the existing basis (without addition of 20 per cent. in any case) whichever is lower.

WAGES.

WAGES.—Cultivating labourers and their dependents constituted about nine per cent. of the agricultural population of the district in 1951. Of these nearly 45 per cent. were self-upporting persons and earning dependents. They are employed by the cultivators to do some casual work (as in times of busy season), to perform particular agricultural operation or operations, to do farm work throughout the year etc. This section purports to analyse the differences in wages paid to these labourers for different kinds of work, consideration being given to the differences in wage rates prevailing in three years, 1938-39 (pre-war); 1948-49 (post-war); and 1956-57.

Casual labour.

The following table shows the payment of wages based on sex and age in different talukas of the district :—

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WAGES.
Casual labour.

TABLE No. 41.

RATES OF WAGES ACCORDING TO TYPE OF LABOUR IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (DAILY WAGE RATES IN CASH DURING).

Taluka.	1938-39			1948-49			1956-57		
	Pre-War.			Post-War.			Current.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1. Ajara	0 4 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	1 0 0	0 8 0 to 0 10 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 8 0
2. Bavada	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 3 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 8 0	1 0 0*	1 0 0	0 8 0
3. Bhudargad	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0
4. Gadhinglaj	0 3 6	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
5. Hatkanangale	0 4 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	1 0 0	0 8 0 to 0 10 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 8 0 to 0 10 0	0 8 0
6. Kagal	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 8 0
7. Karvir	0 4 0	0 2 6	0 2 6	1 4 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	1 4 0	0 12 0	0 10 0
8. Panhala	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 2 0	0 12 0	0 8 0	0 6 0	1 8 0†	0 12 0	0 8 0 to 0 10 0
9. Radhanagari	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 2 6	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
10. Shahuwadi	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 2 0	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 12 0
11. Shirol	0 6 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	1 0 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 4 0	0 8 0	0 8 0

* One meal.

† Or three seers of paddy.

WAGES.
Casual labour.

During the pre-war period, man-labour was available at four annas per day in most of the talukas. Only in exceptional cases it was either below this limit (as at Gadhinglaj) or above (as at Shirol). The post-war and present periods have shown a rise up to four times the pre-war level. In some cases, as at Panhala Mahal, the current rate reported was as high as Rs. 1-8-0; this can be regarded as almost double the post-war rate and about six times as high as the pre-war rate.

Female labour is employed mostly for light work and is paid less than male labour. The pre-war rate varied from place to place between two annas and four annas. The lowest was at Gadhinglaj, being Re. 0-1-6 only. The wage rate in 1956-57 varied from eight to twelve annas. In some places it was about a rupee.

Child labour is employed naturally for light work. The pre-war rate varied between two annas and four annas except in special cases, as at Gadhinglaj, where the wage rate reported was as low as Re. 0-1-6. The current wage rate varied from eight annas to twelve annas. There was no appreciable difference between the post-war and current rates of child labour in most of the talukas.

Wages according to operations.

Leaving aside sugarcane operations which are generally paid better, operations like threshing, harvesting or working implements were paid currently at a rate varying between twelve annas and a rupee and, in exceptional cases, up to two rupees. The highest wage, which stood at three rupees was reported from Gagan Bavda Mahal. The heavy manual work involved in these operations is done only by male labour. The pre-war rates for such operations varied between three and eight annas per day except in some places like Shirol taluka or Gagan Bavda mahal where the rates varied between eight annas and a rupee and a quarter.

Contract labour for the special operations required for the sugarcane crop is paid at rates much higher than those for above operations. Boiling operations are paid the highest rate which went up to five rupee in certain places in 1956-57. The pre-war rate of wages for such operations varied between half a rupee and a rupee and a half. The wage rates for other sugarcane operations like harvesting, crushing etc., varied from Re 1 to Rs. 2 in 1956-57.

Annual Servants. *Saldars*.

Annual servants (*saldars*) are employed by farmers whose holdings are large enough to provide continuous work throughout the year. Very often the annual servant is a skilled worker and is available for work at any time and even takes initiative in organizing general farm work. In most cases, the *saldar* stays with the farmer and is treated as a member of the family.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

WAGES.

Annual Servants.

Saldars.

Wages to annual servants are generally paid partly in cash and partly in kind. Adult male servants were paid in the pre-war period in cash (Rs. 50 to Rs. 100) in different talukas whilst in 1956-57 cash rate varied between Rs. 150 and Rs. 225. In addition to the cash payment, these servants are generally given food, clothing, footwear, tea and bedding in the form of a blanket etc. Where no payment in kind is promised, the cash payment is much more. The cash payment for child (boy) in the pre-war period was reported to have been varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50 whilst in 1956-57 it varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100. These wages are paid either in advance or by instalments. The practice of employing a boy as a *saldar* is, however, not very common. The following table shows the payments made to these *saldars* in different periods in different talukas:—

TABLE No. 42.

PAYMENT TO ANNUAL SERVANTS (SALDARS) IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Taluka.	Payment during.					
	1938-39 (Pre-War)		1948-49 (Post-War)		1956-57 (Current).	
	Male.	Boy.	Male.	Boy.	Male.	Boy.
Ajara ..	50	30	125	65	150	100
Bavada ..	45	20	120	60	120	60
Bhudargad ..	50	25	100	50	150	100
Gadhinglaj ..	40	20	90	40	100	60
Hatkanangale..	50 to 70	10	150 to 200	25	150 to 200	30 to 50
Kagal ..	50 to 60	30	150	50	200	75
Karvir .	75	30	150	60	200	100
Panhala ..	60	30	125	60	150	70
Radhanagari ..	100	65	150	100	350	200
Shahuwadi ..	50	20	150	100	150	100
Shirol .	100	50	225	100	225	100

Balutedars.

There was a time when the village *balutas* or artisans were considered to be the backbone of our village economy. In spite of the decay of the village economy in its old forms the *baluta* system has not disappeared. The necessity of these village artisans is naturally felt more in villages which are far away from towns and where the means of communication are scanty. The conspicuous ones among them are the carpenter, the black-smith, the cobbler and the barber.

In almost all the talukas, these balutedars are paid in kind, the quantity of grain given being about one Bengali maund. In Shirol, the same was reported to be much higher In Ajra Mahal, carpenters and blacksmiths were paid in cash (between three and four rupees per day). In some talukas, like Hatkanangle, payments are made both in cash and kind. The payment is made in kind (grain) at the time of harvest. It is interesting to note that the quantity of grain paid at present is not very different from what was paid in the pre-war or post-war period. This is understandable in view of the high prices of grain today.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

WAGES.

Annual Servants.

Balutedars.

FAMINES.

FAMINES.—Kolhapur district, with its good rainfall and rich land especially in the valleys of the *Dudhaganga, Krishna, Varna,* and *Panchaganga,* is usually free from famine. Owing to failure of crops in some outlying parts of the former State, on account of scarcity of rain, prices have been occasionally high: but except in 1876-77 no famine was recorded. Even in 1876-77 distress was caused more by the condition of the surrounding British districts than by a total failure of crops in Kolhapur State.

1804-05.

In 1804-05, in Kolhapur, though the season was tolerably good, the people suffered from scarcity of food which is said to have been caused by the devastations of the Maratha army in the interior of the Maratha country. All the starving persons from the neighbouring Maratha areas flocked to Kolhapur for relief. There was a great pressure on local supplies and the rupee price of grain rose to seven pounds and a half. The number of deaths from starvation was also considerable. Shivaji, the then ruling prince of Kolhapur, as well as Himmat Bahadar, Bhim Bahadar, and other *sardars* and well-to-do persons, distributed food to the starving people who had flocked to Kolhapur from other places. The following year was a year of plenty and the people soon recovered from the effects of this distress.

In 1876-77, the scanty rainfall of twenty-six inches led to a failure of crops, which following the bad crops of the previous year, by reason of which there was no grain in store, spread distress amounting to famine. The East suffered most. While scarcity prevailed in the rest of the Kolhapur State, famine had full sway in these parts. For weeks together people lived on herbs mixed with chaff and sometimes committed petty thefts to satisfy hunger. When the 1876-77 monsoon set in very sparingly, husbandmen became alarmed and grain-dealers who had only small grain stores gradually raised prices. Things looked gloomy, but it was not till the first week of October that the full extent of the calamity was felt. It was a week of panic. Prices suddenly rose; village traders, moneylenders, and well-to-do persons, whose grain stocks had

been already reduced by successive bad seasons, did not like to deplete their stocks further and refused to make advances to husbandmen on the usual security of their field produce; there was no field work; and the people clamoured for relief works. At first small works were opened by the State to give immediate relief to *Mangs, Mahars*, and other classes more or less given to theft, who would otherwise have taken to wholesale plundering. Though the wages on the relief work were lower in the beginning than the ordinary rate in the State, subsequently the sliding scale based on the price of staple foodgrain, fixed by the British Government, was strictly adhered to.

In November 1876, relief works were first opened in Shirol and Ichalkaranji in the East where distress began to be felt early and in the hilly parts of Vishalgad in the West where distress already prevailed owing to failure of crops in 1875. As the number of relief-seekers increased in December and January, earthworks were started all over the State. The number of labourers became large. The number was doubled and it went on steadily increasing till September, when it began to fall off gradually upto the end of November when all relief works were finally closed.

From July 1877, the Imperial Public Works department took charge of some of the relief-works carried on a large scale. To these works were transferred large numbers of able bodied labourers with their children under seven years. The total cost on relief-works amounted to Rs. 2,60,300.

Besides these works, gratuitous relief was given to those who were unable to work. In Kolhapur and in the feudatory States under it there were already several permanent charitable houses. The scope of these was enlarged soon after the scarcity began to be generally felt. As the distress increased, new relief-houses were opened at convenient places. In all, there were eighteen relief-houses. The inmates of Kolhapur alms-houses were on two occasions supplied with clothing from personal donations. The gratuitous relief cost the State Rs. 56,800.

As the agricultural seasons of 1877 approached, advances were made to a large number of cultivators who would other wise have been left without any means of cultivating their fields, as they had neither credit nor the means of buying food or seed grain.

The average number of deaths for the three preceding years ending 1875-76 was 13,792. In the famine year of 1876-77, it rose to 28,573 or more than doubled. The increased death-rate was more due to cholera, diarrhoea, small-pox, and

1804–05.

other epidemics which broke up in the hot season of 1877, than due to actual starvation. The harvest of 1877 was fair, but the affected people who had been weakened by their previous suffering died in large numbers especially along the hills. The poorer classes suffered most. In some of the villages all families of husbandmen deserted their villages and were not heard of afterwards. The loss of cattle was great. Many *dhangars* (shepherds) living in the hilly parts lost all their cattle, owing partly to want of fodder and partly to cattle diseases which accompanied other epidemics. Well-to-do people did not actually seek State relief, but lost all they had. Ornaments, metal pots, spare clothing, and even family idols were freely sold.

1896–97.

This famine was caused by irregular rainfall and the whole of former Kolhapur State was affected. The tract, dependent for the most part of *Kharif* crops, received abundant rains in the beginning of the monsoon. In several places the rainfall was so heavy as to necessitate resowing. But beyond a few scattered showers there was practically no rain in the latter part of the season.

The collection and breaking or road metal and construction of new tanks and roads and repairs to the old ones were the measures considered suitable to relieve the population of the distress. Gratuitous relief was given to the adult dependents of the famine stricken persons who were working on the relief works and also to children under seven years of age. A sum of Rs. 31,354 was spent in this way on 4,140 persons. Poor houses were opened for the destitute and the weak, at Panhala, Bambawade, Bajarbhogaon, Gargoti, Valevade, Tirawade, Gadhinglaj and Kolhapur. The number of persons fed in this way was 48,785 and Rs. 3 393 were expended. Cash doles amounting to Rs. 8,512 were distributed among 3,237 persons. Cheap grain shops were also opened by private persons. The State opened its forests for cattle grazing.

The agriculturists received *tagai* loans against the security of their land, the total amount so distributed being Rs. 46,074. The distressed inferior village servants also received relief by way of cash doles.

All these relief measures were withdrawn after the middle of November, 1897. The total amount spent by the State for famine relief during the year 1896-97 was Rs. 3,14,493.

1899–1900.

Shirol taluka was the worst hit by this famine which was caused by the failure of rains. The conditions in other parts of the State were, however, not so serious. The relief works opened consisted of deepening of old wells and construction of new ones, construction of new tanks and approach roads to the

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES. 1899-1900.

bridges on the Nipani-Phonda Ghat Road. Temporary dams were built across the river in Shirol taluka at various places. The government ordered cutting of grass and trees which were to be sold at cost price to the needy persons. Wages were paid on a sliding scale basis, thus enabling the weak and the infirm to earn a fair wage ; those who had non-working dependents to support obtained a higher rate.

Two poor houses were opened in Shirol taluka and one was opened at Vadgaon and 6,420 persons, housed in them. The merchants and the rich distributed cooked food free of charge at Kolhapur and other big centres. Government servants getting Rs. 15 and less received compensation in kind on a sliding scale basis i.e., in proportion to the rise in price of the stable food viz., jowar. The allowance was to be given till the harvest of new crop of that year (that is, till jowar became cheaper). Rs. 12,400 were distributed as loans. Doles given in kind were valued at Rs. 1,732.

1905-06.

The character of the season of 1905-06, was far from satisfactory. The rainfall was much deficient of the average throughout the eastern part of the State. Tank works were started at Shirol and Kolhapur and the labourers were paid on piece-rate basis. Gratuitous relief was granted to children and non-working dependants of the workers. Low paid State employees received compensation in kind. The agriculturists were given *tagai* loans for sinking new wells and for reconditioning old ones. The holders of alienated villages also received advances to enable them to grant relief to the distressed persons in their villages.

1925-26.

In 1925-26, Shirol peta once again suffered from shortage of rains and, as a result, the Government postponed the collection of land revenue (amounting to Rs. 20,000) in the taluka till the beginning of next year.

1926-27.

In 1926-27, the Shirol peta once again witnessed failure of rains and the distressing effects thereof. To alleviate the sufferings of the people, famine works were started. Some relief was also afforded by extending the time for crediting land revenue in six villages.

1941-42.

Scanty rainfall in Shirol peta in 1941-42 necessitated governmental inquiry into the extent of suffering and misery and the need for relief measures. After due inquiries, it was decided to grant suspension and remission of land revenue. Recovery of dues from co-operative societies was postponed. The execution of decrees in mortgage cases and *madat* suits was suspended till March 1943. Recovery of land revenue instalments etc., was postponed from January 1942 to March 1943.

NOTE ON CHANDGAD TALUKA.

In 1955-56, Chandgad Taluka formed a part of Belgaum District which was transferred to Mysore State at the time of Reorganisation of State (in 1956-57). Chandgad Taluka, however, became a part of the Bombay State and was merged with the district of Kolhapur. In 1951, population of this taluka was 80,513 and was entirely rural. Agriculture was the mainstay of 73,797 persons (nearly 90 per cent), including self-supporting persons and their dependants, both earning and non-earning. Majority of them were the cultivating owners, numbering 40,873, who worked on their own farms; the number of tenant cultivators was 28,207 and that of agricultural labourers 3,625. The non-cultivating owner, who rented their land, numbered 1,092.

The geographical area of this taluka was 2,38,037 acres in 1955-56 of which 68,977 acres were under forests and 84.034 acres, under crops. Area sown more than once was of the order of 3,572 acres, giving thus a gross cropped area of 87,606 acres which was entirely under *kharif* crops. There were 64,411 acres under food-crop and 23,195 acres, under non-food-crops. Rice, ragi and sava were important among cereals, horsegram among pulses and sweet potato among vegetables. The area under fodder crops (grass and babuls) was 22,021 acres. Well irrigation was predominant. There were 665 masonry and non-masonry wells, all privately owned. Among other sources were private canals, tanks, etc. The net area irrigated by all these sources was 3,652 acres which was about nine per cent. of the net area sown.

Under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, the range of standard areas applicable to various types of land in this taluka is as follows:—

Jirayat	... 2 acres
Rice	.. 1 acre
Bagayat	... 1 acre

CHAPTER 6—INDUSTRIES, LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1951, OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF 12,27,547 of the Kolhapur district, 79,196 persons (71,404 men and 7,792 women) were engaged in various industries. Classification of these persons is given in Economic Table No. III of the Census Report of 1951, which shows the numbers " economically active" (self-supporting persons) engaged in various "Industries and Services". The Table No. 1 gives statistics of persons engaged in "Processing and Manufacture" and "Construction and Utilities". Under the first head—"Processing and Manufacture", figures are given under different divisions viz., (1) Food stuffs, Textiles, Leather and products thereof; (2) Metals, Chemicals and products thereof; (3) Processing and Manufacture—Not elsewhere specified. These heads are further sub-divided into various groups of industries and figures against them are given under three different items—(1) employers, (2) employees, (3) independent workers with male and female as sub-heads under each. The head, "Construction and Utilities" is sub-divided into groups of industries and the arrangement of figures against them follows the pattern adopted in " Processing and Manufacture":—

TABLE No. 1.

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE (SELF-SUPPORTING) NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES UNDER "PROCESSING AND MANUFACTURE" AND "CONSTRUCTION OF UTILITIES" IN 1951, IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Classification of Industries.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent Workers.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(i) PROCESSING AND MANUFACTURE.								
I. (a)	*Food Stuffs, Textile, Leathers and Products Thereof.*	*12,596*	*925*	*802*	*25*	*3,946*	*262*	*7,828*	*638*
	(1) Food Industries otherwise unclassified	281	10	36	3	69	1	176	6
	(2) Grains and pulses	338	40	48	2	122	4	168	34
	(3) Vegetable oil and dairy products	361	53	33	....	170	11	158	42
	(4) Sugar Industries	748	14	....	....	682	13	66	1
	(5) Beverages	82	1	21	....	32	....	29	1
	(6) Tobacco	364	148	15	....	96	40	253	108
	(7) Cotton textiles	4,705	328	470	13	2,421	184	1,814	131
	(8) Wearing apparel and made up textile goods	2,243	97	96	2	187	2	1,960	93
	(9) Textile Industries otherwise unclassified	1,388	167	12	1	519	3	1,257	163
	(10) Leather, leather products and footwear	2,086	67	71	4	48	4	1,967	59

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
INTRODUCTION.
Processing and Manufacture.

II (b) *Metals, chemicals and Products thereof* ..	2,34[illegible]	23	14[illegible]	[illegible]	301	11	[illegible],299	[illegible]
(1) Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified ..	1,158	22	41	1	96	4	1,021	1[illegible]
(2) Iron and steel (Basic Manufacture)	181	....	10	...	115	....	56	....
(3) Non-ferrous metals (Basic manufacture) . ..	3	3	....	....	....	....	3	3
(4) Transport equipment	593	2	74	....	442	2	77	....
(5) Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies.	39	...	3	...	13	....	14	....
(6) Machinery (other than electrical machinery) including Engineering Workshops.	157	1	11	....	119	1	27	....
(7) Basic Industrial Chemical Fertiliser and Power Alcohol.	6	....	1	....	1	....	1	....
(8) Medical and Pharmaceutical preparations	19	1	1	....	16	1	2	....
(9) Manufacture of chemical products otherwise unclassified.	195	4	4	....	96	3	95	1
III (c) *Processing and manufacture—Not elsewhere specified* ..	*8,361*	*612*	*328*	*9*	*880*	*35*	*7,153*	*568*
(1) Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified ..	2,225	103	221	3	458	1	1,546	99
(2) Bricks tiles and other structural clay products ..	211	54	....	....	4	29	207	29
(3) Cement pipes and other cement products . ..	207	25	38	....	....	....	12	....
(4) Non-metallic mineral products	1,780	283	15	6	9	1	1,756	276
(5) Wood and Wood products other than furniture and fixtures.	2,798	170	62	..	176	3	3,560	167
(6) Furniture and fixtures manufacture	25	1	....	...	5	.	20	1
(7) Paper and paper products manufacture	1	...	....	....	....	....	1	....
(8) Printing and allied Industries	283	1	30	....	216	1	37	...

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
INTRODUCTION.
Construction and Utilities.

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Serial No.	Classification of Industries.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent Workers.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
IV (ii)	CONSTRUCTION AND UTILITIES	*4,329*	*230*	*98*	*2*	*1,733*	*122*	*2,498*	*106*
	(1) Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified.	2	2	....	....	....	2	2	....
	(2) Construction and maintenance of buildings ..	2,511	145	55	2	242	40	2,214	103
	(3) Bridges, roads and other transport works ..	328	1	18	....	245	1	65	....
	(4) Irrigation and other agricultural works	1,060	43	22	...	868	42	170	1
	(5) Works and services, electric power and gas supply ..	263	2	3	....	248	2	12	....
	(6) Works and services, Domestic and Industrial water supply.	85	2	....	...	55	1	30	1
	(7) Sanitary work and services including scavengers ..	80	35	....	....	75	34	5	1

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

The following pages describe the industrial life and activity of the district. The chapter is divided into three sections: (1) Large-Scale Industries, (2) Small-Scale Industries and (3) Labour Organization. It is, however, to be noted that the statistics given in the section on large-scale industries which include employment and such other aspects as capital investment, production etc. are included, are not in respect of the industry as a whole but pertain to such major units as are registered under the Factories Act, 1948. They therefore do not embrace small establishments. In the sections on small-scale industries and labour organization, general description of each village industry and of trade union movement in the district is given.

I—LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

COTTON TEXTILES.

Cotton Textiles.—Cotton has been an important fibre crop of Kolhapur since the beginning the present century. Round about 1910-15 about 30,000 acres of land were under cotton cultivation. With a view to exploit the available resources, the late Maharaja Shahu Chhatrapati of Kolhapur, started a cotton textile mill at Kolhapur. It was owned by the Kolhapur Government. Originally it had only a spinning section and weaving department was added to it in 1928. Till 1935, it was managed by Messrs. James Finlay and Co who acted as the agents of the Kolhapur Government. With the merger of the Kolhapur in Bombay State in 1949, the unit was taken over by the Government of Bombay. It is the only large scale textile unit working in the district. It had 319 looms, 15,998 spindles in 1947-48. It produced about 2·8 million lbs. of yarn and manufactured about 6·4 yards of cloth of various kinds viz. dhoti, pugree-cloth, plain-khadi, heavy long-cloth, and dasoti-cloth in the same year.

The total capital investment in the factory was Rs. 41,38,635, of which Rs. 23,87,,280 were invested in buildings and machinery and Rs. 17,51,355 as working capital at the end of 1956. There were 320 looms and 15,988 spindles in the mill. The establishment consumed 7,312 bales of cotton of short staple 27/32 inches and below, and 12,11,607 lbs. of yarn of 19s to 30s during 1956, and produced 12,99,466 lbs. i.e. 54,24 029 yards of medium grey cloth and 24,67,240 lbs. of yarn of medium variety. Coal and electricity were the main items of fuel. The establishment consumed 2,775 tons of coal valued at Rs. 1,34,999 and electricity valued at Rs. 80,202 in 1956. The categories of workers employed were skilled, semi-skilled and un-skilled. The total employment of workers in the concern was 959 out of whom 821 were skilled and semi-skilled, 126 un-skilled and 12 supervisors. The source of labour supply was local as well as adjoining villages. The basic minimum wage of a worker was Rs. 28 per month. The average earnings including dearness allowance of a worker, came to about Rs. 110 per month

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Cotton Textiles.

The weaving section of the mill was running a single shift and spinning double shift. The market for the cloth manufactured in the mill was Kolhapur, Ratnagiri and Satara districts and Bombay city. Fifty per cent. of the production was sold in Kolhapur and surrounding districts and fifty per cent. in Bombay.

Besides this large-scale textile unit, there were in 1953-54, 150 power loom factories in the district which were mostly located at Ichalkaranji. About 1,590 power-looms were working in them. The first power-loom factory was started in 1928. During the thirties and forties of this century this industry was greatly expanded as a result of the encouragement and concessions granted to it by the Jahagirdar of Ichalkaranji, a Jahagir of the then Kolhapur State. It was during this period that many hand-looms were converted into power-looms. The industry was further expanded during the Second World War, when many Marwari Commission Agents rendered financial assistance to aritisans working on handlooms to facilitate the conversion from hand-looms to power-looms. Availability of skilled labour was another factor which helped in the expansion of the industry.

Of the 150 power-loom factories existing in the district in 1953-54, 59 were registered under the Factories Act. Fifty-five, out of 59 factories registered under the Factories Act, were located at Ichalkaranji, two at Kolhapur and one each at Kurundwad and Valivada. The total number of looms in all 150 factories was 1831 and in factories registered under the Factories Act, 1372. The following table shows number of looms according to the size of the unit:—

TABLE No. 2.

Size of the unit (No. of power looms).	No. of units.	Total number of powerlooms.
4 or less	78	197
5 to 9	40	270
10 to 24	53	823
25 to 49	6	228
50 or above	4	313

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Cotton Textiles.

The aggregate fixed and working capital invested in the whole cotton textile industry during 1948-52 was as follows:—

TABLE No. 3.

TABLE SHOWING AGGREGATE CAPITAL INVESTED IN COTTON TEXTILE MILL AND POWER-LOOM FACTORIES REGISTERED UNDER THE FACTORIES ACT.

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of factories ..	45	44	48	31	23
Fixed capital in Rs. ..	26,21,095	26,07,467	31,00,147	16,52,302	24,19,497
Working capital in Rs. ..	35,26,077	36,19,612	39,75,293	13,71,249	47,61,879
Total Productive capital in Rs.	61,47,172	62,27,079	70,75,440	30,23,551	71,81,376

The aggregate capital invested in 59 power-loom factories registered under the Factories Act was Rs. 82,93,100 including working capital of Rs. 47,49,000.

Raw materials.

Cotton, cotton-yarn of different counts and art silk constituted the main raw materials in the industry. Cotton yarn of 40s and over, artificial silk-yarn, and dyes were brought from Bombay. Some times cotton-yarn of 40s and over was brought from Madura. Stores materials were purchased locally. The following table shows the consumption and value of cotton fibre and yarn, art-silk-yarn during 1948-52 :—

TABLE No. 4.

TABLE SHOWING THE CONSUMPTION AND VALUE OF COTTON FIBRE AND YARN, ART-SILK-YARN DURING 1948-52.

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of factories ..	45	44	48	31	23
Quantity of cotton fibre in bales of 792 lbs. each.	8,201	7,911	7,677	7,970	7,973
Value of cotton fibre in Rs..	27,08,987	30,00,760	31,64,393	35,83,507	20,84,173
Quantity of yarns in lbs. ..	6,98,068	9,07,732	6,83,700	4,51,858	4,45,198
Value of yarns in Rs. ..	22,63,700	31,86,701	32,12,292	27,13,284	22,97,008
Total value of raw materials consumed in Rs.	60,55,746	73,07,748	73,65,170	70,07,390	60,98,205

Cotton, cotton yarn, art silk etc. valued at Rs. 68,88,000 was consumed by the cotton mill and 59 powerloom factories in 1953-54.

Fuel.

Most of the powerloom factories were situated at Ichalkaranji. Some of them used power generated by oil engines and some

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES Cotton Textiles. *Fuel.*

received it from Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Project. The value of fuel and electricity consumed by these factories during 1948-52 was as follows :—

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Value of fuel, electricity, lubricants, consumed in Rupees.	3,36,444	3,19,800	2,96,246	2,53,065	3,03,235

Employment.

The total number of persons employed in these factories was 2,521 in 1948 and 2,572 in 1950. Out of the persons employed in 45 factories in 1948, 1,929 were male workers, 224 female workers, 194 children and 174 persons other than workers. In 1950, number of men employed in 48 factories was 2,140, women 207, children 26, and supervisors and clerks 199. In 1948 and 1950 these workers were paid Rs. 18,36,534 and Rs. 22,79,424 respectively as wages. The total number of workers employed in 59 power-loom factories in 1953-54 was 2,400 including 158 women. They were paid Rs. 21,42,000 as wages. Besides these workers, 180 persons were employed in supervisory, technical and clerical capacity. They were paid Rs. 3,62,900 as salaries.

Production.

In 1956-57, the main cotton textile products of the district were grey *dhotis* and pugree-cloth, plain khadi, heavy long-cloth, and *dosuti*-cloth manufactured by the textile mill and coloured *saris* and *khans* and grey *dhotis* produced on power-looms. More than ninety per cent. of the textile production in the district consisted of *saris* and *khans* and grey *dhotis*. On an average a power-loom produced 25 yards of cloth per day. Power-loom factories were then producing grey *dhotis* as they were forbidden to produce *saris* of lower counts by Government. The following table shows the products and by-products and value of them during 1948-52:—

TABLE No. 5.

TABLE SHOWING THE PRODUCTS AND BY-PRODUCTS AND VALUE OF THEM DURING 1948-52.

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Quantity of total yarn produced in lbs.	26,60,787	25,42,458	24,64,000	26,35,000	26,67,000
Quantity of woven piece goods in lbs.	18,84,211	17,40,004	17,40,486	17,73,147	17,46,319
Value of woven piece goods in Rs.	73,82,357	86,72,722	85,60,138	77,39,104	69,06,888
Quantity of by-products in lbs.	5,02,861	3,79,348	3,92,103	3,84,146	3,71,264
Value of by-products in Rs.	58,769	69,623	1,22,108	1,39,496	61,035

Marketing.

The market for these goods was generally concentrated in Maharashtra. Marketing of the products was done through commission agents.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Sugar Manufacturing.

Sugar Manufacturing.—Kolhapur district has extensive lift irrigation facilities and a vast area of land suitable for sugar cane cultivation. In 1951-52, 46,700 acres of land was under sugar-cane cultivation and the total sugar-cane yield was 1,40,800 tons.

Capital.

The first sugar factory was started at Kolhapur in 1932. Since then, till 1956 no other sugar factory was opened. This factory had an aggregate capital of Rs. 18,80,000 including Rs. 13,40,000 invested in machinery and plants and Rs. 5,40,000 in building and had a share capital of Rs. 10.25,000. The investment in the factory had increased to Rs. 1.44,33,000 including working capital to Rs. 61,19,000 in 1953-54.

Tools.

On the farm owned by the factory most of the farm operations such as lifting water, ploughing and ridging were done with power machinery. In 1947-48 the farm had 70 oil engines of 15 to 90 H. P. each for lifting water, 17 tractors, 21 ploughs, 13 trucks and five motor cars. The length of *pogar* line to carry water for irrigation was 60 miles. In the factory there were three boilers of 500 B. H. P. each, three vaccum pans each having 15 tons striking capacity and 15 waterdriven centrifugal pumps The crushing mill consisted of 18 rollers (24" × 48") each and had a capacity to crush 500 tons of cane daily. In 1957, there were three boilers; four vaccum pans, two having the striking capacity of 30 tons each and two 22 tons each; seven electric centrifugal pumps, 18 rollers (24" × 48"), 50 oil engines, 69 power pumps, 16 tractors, 16 ploughs, 15 trucks and 11 cars.

Employment.

In 1947-48, 412 persons were employed permanently by the factory. Besides these permanent workers, there were 1,700 temporary workers, 500 cutters and 500 bullock-carts drivers. About 700 persons were employed extra in the crushing season from November to May. The actual number of working days varied from 120 to 140 in the year. In 1953-54, 525 workers were employed in the factory. Their total wagebill was about Rs. 3,74,000. A factory worker got Rs 2-2-3 including dearness allowance and an agricultural worker got Rs. 2-0-3 including dearness allowance per day. Besides these workers 48 persons were employed in a supervisory capacity. They received Rs. 2,52.000 as salaries. In 1957, the factory had 365 permanent employees and 403 seasonal employees. Seasonal workers were usually employed during April and November. Skilled labour was paid Rs. 75 to 95 plus Dearness Allowance per month and unskilled labour 14 annas 9 pies per day.

Raw Materials.

The factory had its own farm for the cultivation of sugar-cane. During 1942-48, the factory used to grow sugar-cane on 1,000 to 1450 acres every year, and produce 25 to 50 thousand tons

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Sugar Manufacturing. *Raw materials.*

of cane on it. It also used to purchase each year 10 to 30 thousand tons of cane from private growers. In 1955-56, it grew 32.895 tons of sugar-cane on its own farm and purchased 86,559 tons of sugar-cane from the market. In 1956-57, it purchased 86,481 tons of sugar-cane and grew 26,659 tons on its own farm. The following table indicates the quantity and value of raw materials consumed by the factory during 1948-49 and 1952-53:—

Particulars.	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53
Quantity of Sugarcane consumed in tons.	51,054	49,169	43,179	63,616	64,329
Value of Sugarcane in Rs. (including cane cess).	25,61,440	21,87,937	10,55,304	33,54,737	2,94,6524

Production.

It consumed 1,19,454 tons of sugarcane in 1955-56 and, 1,13,140 tons in 1956-57.

The total production of the factory during 1947-48 and 1957-58 was as follows:—

1947-48 ... 5,442 tons or 53,883 bags sugar,

1948-49 .. 7,759 tons or 76,825 bags sugar,

1949-50 .. 6,443 tons or 63,778 bags sugar,

1950-51 .. 5,763 tons or 57,048 bags sugar,

1951-52 ... 8,032 tons or 79,517 bags sugar,

1952-53 ... 8,228 tons or 81.453 bags sugar,

1953-54 .. 6,761 tons or 66,032 bags sugar,

1954-55 .. 13,542 tons or 1.34,057 bags sugar,

1955-56 ... 15,237 tons or 1,50.780 bags sugar,

1956-57 ... 14,281 tons or 1,41,372 bags sugar,

The quality of sugar produced in 1956 was 29-B, 29-C, 29-D and 29-E.

Marketing.

The factory had its own sales depots in all talukas of Kolhapur district and also in several places in Ratnagiri and Belgaum districts and in Bombay city.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Distilleries and Brewries.

Distilleries and Breweries.—The sugar factory at Kolhapur had an ancillary plant for distillation of spirit from molasses. The aggregate capital invested in the plant in 1948-49 was Rs. 4,32,629 and Rs. 4,52,042 in 1950. The investment remained constant thereafter till 1953-54.

Employment.

The total employment in the plant was 18 persons in 1948 and it remained constant thereafter till 1951. In 1952, the number of persons employed was 32. These workers were paid Rs. 10,063 in 1948, Rs. 18,821 in 1951 and Rs. 24,098 in 1952 as wages. The employment in 1953-54 was the same as in 1951, but the wages paid to them were Rs. 1,800. Besides these workers two persons were employed as supervisors and were paid Rs. 7,000 as salaries.

Raw materials and production.

The plant consumed 1,754 tons of molasses and produced 1,14,596·40 gallons of denatured spirit in 1951. In 1952, the consumption of molasses by the plant was 2,916 tons and it produced 1,50,726·20 gallons of denatured spirit. The same figures for the year 1953 were 1,423 tons and 1,29,953·60 gallons.

GUL MAKING.

Gul making is the largest of all rural industries in Kolhapur. It was established in the last century. In the beginning it was organised as a cottage industry but later on motive power for lifting water and crushing sugarcane was introduced in it. Availability of sugarcane and good demand for *gul* were the main factors which assisted the growth of the industry. Unlike sugarcane grown on canal water in North India and in the other parts of Deccan, sugarcane in Kolhapur is grown on lift water as there are no facilities for canal irrigation.

Capital.

There were 23 *gul* factories registered under the Factories Act in 1953-54. The aggregate capital invested in three *gul* factories in 1951 was Rs. 2,25,889 including Rs. 76,776 as working capital. The aggregate capital investment of the industry was Rs. 4,30,000 including Rs. 70,000 as working capital in 1953-54.

Tools.

In 1945-46, about 740 power-pumps, 10,000 single *motes* for lifting water, 475 power-crushers for crushing sugar-cane and 1.332 iron mills worked by bullocks were used in the industry. Diesel engines, cane-crushers, pans, moulds, strainers, etc. came to be used in this process very recently.

Employment.

It is a seasonal industry which gave employment to 23,500 men for 8 to 9 months in 1945-46. The factories registered under the Factories Act employed 420 persons in 1953-54 and they were paid annually Rs. 52,000 as wages. In addition, 30 persons were employed as clerks who were paid Rs. 7.100 as salaries.

Production.

Round about 1945-46, sugar-cane grown on about 30,000 acres was used for *gul* making and on about 2,000 acres was used for manufacturing sugar. The total production of *gul* amounted to 74,000 tons worth Rs. 3·1 crores at Rs. 48 per *atki* of 256 lbs. The production of factories registered under the Factories Act was 1,987 tons worth Rs. 7,70,000 in 1953-54. They crushed about 14,000 tons of sugar-cane valued at Rs. 4,92,000.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Process of Gul making.

Sugar-cane is crushed by crushers run on the power generated by oil-engines. The juice collected is boiled in a large open pan and on cooling it is poured into a pit where it is solidified. These cakes are then filled in bucket-type moulds to get the necessary shape and sent to market for sale.

Market.

Kolhapur *gul* is considered to be of a very high quality and is known for its keeping quality. The district has been exporting *gul* for the last 100 years. Shahapur, Jaisingpur Gadhinglaj and Ichalkaranji are the important *gul* markets. Of the total production of 74,000 tons of *gul* about 58,000 tons worth Rs. 2·3 crores were exported to Gujarat, Saurashtra and Konkan regions in 1945-46.

Engineering.

Engineering.—Surrounding by Ratnagiri district on the west, South Satara on the north-east, Mysore State on the south-east, Kolhapur district has a peculiar position which has helped and encouraged the development of a net work of roads within its boundaries. Road transport vehicles usually ply between Kolhapur, Poona, Belgaum, Ratnagiri and Bangalore. The development of road transport has indirectly helped to establish many automobile workshops in the district. The first such workshop was started in 1912 at Kolhapur. There were seven such workshops registered under the Facories Act in 1953-54. The increase in use of oil engines. power-pumps and power-crushers in sugar and *gul* industry helped to start many engineering workshops in which oil engines, gas plants, centrifugal pumps, storage batteries, hullers, pulleys and crushers were manufactured. There were 12 machines and tools manufacturing units in 1953-54.

Capital.

The aggregate capital invested in these factories and electrical engineering factories during 1948-52 was as follows. [Separate figures for general engineering factories are not available]:—

TABLE No. 6.

TABLE SHOWING CAPITAL INVESTMENT IN ENGINEERING FACTORIES DURING 1948-52.

[Figures of capital in rupees).

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of Factories ..	7	8	10	10	11
Fixed Capital ..	4,78,456	5,05,456	7,22,683	7,43,885	8,55,692
Working Capital ..	2,11,376	3,66,717	7,44,028	9,55,091	10,01,124
Total productive ..	6,89,832	9,02,173	14,66,711	16,98,976	18,56,816

Capital.

The total aggregate capital invested in all the seven automobile repairing workshops excluding two State Transport workshops and in 12 machines and tools manufacturing factories was Rs. 4,23,800 including Rs. 2,76,800 as working capital. The total capital invested in automobile repairing workshops, excluding two State Transport workshops was Rs. 4,24,500 including Rs. 2,76,800 as working capital.

Employment.

The total number of persons employed in all the nineteen factories was 650 in 1953-54, out of whom 280 persons were employed in automobile repairing workshops. The total wage bill of 650 persons employed was Rs. 5,48,000. Besides these workers, 83 persons were employed as supervisors, technicians and clerks in them. They were paid Rs. 1,13,000 as salaries.

Raw materials.

Principal raw materials consumed by these factories were pig iron, coke, non-ferrous alloys and steel of all categories like forgings, plates and rods etc. The quantity and value of raw materials consumed by general engineering and electrical engineering industries as no separate figures are available for general engineering factories, during 1948-52 were as follows:—

TABLE No. 7.

TABLE SHOWING QUANTITY AND VALUE OF RAW MATERIALS CONSUMED BY GENERAL ENGINEERING AND ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING FACTORIES, DURING 1948-52.

(Figures of value in rupees and of quantity in tons).

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of factories .	7	8	10	10	11
Quantity of Iron & Steel ..	303	501	677	849	616
Value of Iron & Steel ..	69,831	2,06,667	2,53,549	2,09,144	2,02,485
Quantity of Brass ..	18	27	4	8	27
Value of Brass ..	3,611	4,947	841	2,077	5,592
Quantity of Copper ..	5	5	23	6	9
Value of Copper ..	859	1,714	2,958	3,491	3,784

Production.

Oil engines, fire-fighting equipment, parts of agricultural implements, flour-mills, hullers, batteries, etc., were mainly produced in tool-manufacturing factories. In addition engine repairing etc., was also carried out in workshops. Oil-engines, cane-crushers, centrifugal pumps and automobiles were repaired in them. The manufacturing units produced engines, implements etc. worth Rs. 11,45,000 in 1953-54.

Machinery and tools used by these workshops were air-compressors, hydraulic jacks and presses, boring and drilling machines. They also used electric motors, casting machines, electric grinders and blowers, shaping, plaining and milling machines.

Vegetable Oils.—Kolhapur district has a good position as regards oil seeds, which occupy about 13·5 per cent. of the gross cropped area. Of all the oil seeds produced in the district groundnut claims the first place. Groundnut oil and cakes form the chief product of oil industry. The area under groundnut in 1951-52 was about 1,16,700 acres and groundnut production was 36,000 tons. Large cultivation of sugarcane and extensive use of oil cakes for its growth are the main factors responsible for its expansion. In 1953-54, there were ten oil mills registered under the Factories Act, out of which four were located at Kolhapur, three at Ichalkaranji and one each at Jaisingpur, Vadgaon and Gadhinglaj. The first oil mill in the district was started in 1912; three between 1930 and 1939 and the remaining six between 1940 and 1949.

Capital.

The aggregate capital invested in these factories during 1948 and 1952 was as follows: —

TABLE No. 8.

TABLE SHOWING CAPITAL INVESTMENT DURING 1948-52.

(Figures of capital in rupees).

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of factories .	5	7	7	7	5
Fixed Capital ..	16,11,638	23,76,841	26,11,352	26,62,100	14,33,094
Working Capital ..	2,91,504	4,53,693	4,67,496	5,63,391	5,47,527
Total productive Capital employed.	19,03,142	28,30,734	30,78,848	32,25,491	19,80,621

In 1948 there were five oil mills which had an aggregate capital of Rs. 19,03,142. In 1951 seven mills had an aggregate capital of Rs. 32,25,491. There were ten mills with the capital investment of Rs. 32,81,800 including fixed capital of Rs. 20,46,800 in 1953-54.

Employment.

In 1948, 315 persons including 164 males, 94 females, two children and 55 persons other than workers were employed in five factories. They were paid Rs. 1,35,084 as wages and salaries. In 1951, the number of persons employed in seven factories registered under the Factories Act was 344 including 187 males and 95 females, one child and 61 persons other than workers. They were paid Rs. 1,67,749. In 1953-54, the total employment in the ten oil mills was 240 persons who were paid Rs. 1,01,800 as wages. Besides these workers, there were 60 persons employed in them. They were paid Rs. 67,600 as salaries.

Groundnut seeds were mainly crushed in these factories. Besides groundnut, safflower and niger were also crushed. In 1948, 4,580 tons of groundnut valued at Rs. 24,14,190 and 19 tons of other basic materials valued at Rs. 3,770 were crushed by five factories registered under the Factories Act. In 1951, 5,392 tons of groundnut valued at Rs. 42,64,446 were crushed in seven factories.

The following table shows the consumption of raw materials and other basic materials during 1948 and 1952:—

TABLE No. 9.

TABLE SHOWING CONSUMPTION OF RAW MATERIALS DURING 1948-52.

(Figures of quantity in tons, and of value in rupees).

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
No. of factories ..	5	7	7	7	5
Quantity of groundnut ..	4,580	9,119	5,327	5,392	5,700
Value of groundnut ..	24,14,190	51,05,254	30,14,708	42,64,446	35,19,032
Quantity of other basic materials.	19	11	117	98	1
Value of other basic materials	3,770	6,793	64,068	59,300	1,279

Ten factories consumed groundnut and other seeds worth Rs. 21,51,570 in 1953-54. The value of fuel consumed by the five factories in 1948 was Rs. 41,845. Fuel worth Rs. 37,191 and Rs. 25,407 was consumed by seven factories in 1949 and 1951 respectively.

These factories produced groundnut oil and oil cakes and other oils and oil cakes. The following table indicates quantity and value of products and by-products of these factories during 1948-52:—

TABLE No. 10.

TABLE SHOWING QUANTITY AND VALUE OF PRODUCTS DURING 1948-52.

(Figures of quantity in tons and of value in rupees).

Particulars.	1948	1949	1950	1051	1952
No. of factories ..	5	7	7	7	5
Quantity of groundnut oil..	1,571	3,201	2,052	2,092	2,360
Value of groundnut oil ..	22,83,614	48,31,254	35,99,061	38,52,847	31,48,083
Quantity of groundnut cakes	2,288	4,908	3,062	2,987	3,410
Value of groundnut cakes ..	5,38,980	10,46,846	6,41,160	9,08,309	8,34,645
Quantity of other oils ..	5	4	26	24	....
Value of other oils ..	5,875	6,000	47,462	54,000	....
Quantity of other cakes ..	14	7	89	67	....
Value of other cakes ..	2,040	1,014	10,609	6,750	....
Total value of finished products and work done for others.	28,32,157	58,98,091	43,26,476	48,34,094	40,51,658

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Silver Ornaments Manufacturing.

The value of oil and oil cakes produced in ten factories was Rs. 27,93,370 (1953-54).

Kolhapur and Poona districts provided markets for these products. About thirty to forty per cent. of the products were sold locally.

Silver Ornaments.

Silver Ornaments Manufacturing.—The silver ornament industry in the district particularly at Hupari is well-known in India. To most of the people at Hupari it is the main source of livelihood. The first silver ornaments workshop was started at Hupari in 1904. In the beginning, the industry was organised on cottage-basis and carried on entirely at the residence of the artisans. In course of time, machines were introduced in the process of beating and moulding ornaments. The industry largely expanded during 1940 and 1945, after the introduction of the rolling machine (*Pasta*) for the use of drawing wires and sheets of silver rods. It was during this period that the industry propered. About 1,200 workers were then engaged n it. The industry received a set-back after the World War II. Application of the Factories Act also contributed to produce that result. The number of workers employed in the industry was about 600 in 1953-54. Most of the silver ornament workshops worked on wage-*cum*-profit basis. Shroffs of Kolhapur usually give orders to the artisans for making ornaments alongwith the required quantity of silver and pay necessary wages for making ornaments and a share in the profits. There were ten such workshops registered under the Factories Act. Nine of them were situated at Hupari and one at Hatkanangale. Four out of ten factories used electrical and mechanical power while the others adopted hand processes.

Capital.

The aggregate capital invested in the ten workshops was Rs. 3,67,200 including working capital of Rs. 3,14,000. The number of persons employed in them was 128, of whom three persons were other than workers. The workers received Rs. 66,740 as wages. They got wages as per work done.

Raw material.

The basic raw material required was silver which was obtained from shroffs of Kolhapur. Pure silver was obtained in weight and ornaments were delivered to shroffs equal in weight of the silver obtained. The value of raw materials used was Rs. 3,96,000 in 1953-54. They used rolling machines, die punches, hand presses and wire drawing machines. Rolling machines used mechanical power generated by oil engines.

Production.

Only silver articles were manufactured. The basic product was a chain made of thin wires of silver. Other articles were made after attaching pieces and trinkets to the main chain of silver. The value of ornaments and silver-were produced was Rs. 4,87,500 and the value of work done on materials supplied by others was Rs. 36,750 in 1953-54.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Electricity Generation.

Wires were first drawn on the rolling machines from silver in ingots. They were then cut into small pieces to form rings which were linked together with each other and soldered by an inferior type of alloy. This was the process adopted for the manufacture of silver chains.

Electricity Generation.

Electricity Generation.—The first power house at Kolhapur was started in 1921 with gas plants and two sets of 120 K. W. In 1928, diesel engine was installed in it, another two sets of 200 K. W. and 300 K. W. were installed in 1933 and 1939 respectively and a set of 260 K. W. was added in 1949. It was a generating station till 1953, but was transformed into a receiving station afterwards. It received bulk of its electric supply from Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Works. The work of conversion of current from D. C. to A. C. between Kolhapur and Radhanagari was completed by June 1947. The maximum load of the Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Works was 30,000 K. V. A. and the biggest consumer of it was the Kolhapur Electric Supply Co., which consumed about 700 K. W. A. load. This concern supplied half of the electricity consumed by the city and had about 4,600 consumers per month. The total consumption of electricity was 1,70,000 units per month. The rate for domestic consumption per unit was six annas up to the consumption of first 25 units and five and a half anna from 25 units to 34 units.

The second power house was opened at Ichalkaranji in 1935. Two more stations were subsequently opened, one at Kolhapur and the other at Jaisingpur. The one at Kolhapur was later on amalgamated with the old. The Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Works started functioning in 1953. Since then, no other power house was opened in the district till 1956. The Radhanagari Project supplied electricity to Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur and Kolhapur for domestic consumption as well as for industrial purposes and to small irrigation works like electric pumps planted on the *Panchaganga* river bank from Kolhapur to Shirol under the Emergency Lift Irrigation Scheme.

The rate for consumption for industrial purposes was as follows:—

(1) 3 annas per unit of electricity consumed by saw mills and water pumps for domestic use.

(2) 2 annas per unit of electricity consumed by flour mills and water pumps used for irrigation.

(3) 4 annas per unit of electricity consumed by cinema houses and street lights of municipality.

The power houses at Ichalkaranji and Jaisingpur also received electric supply from Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Works. They supplied electricity to the respective towns. The power house at Ichalkaranji charged following rates for general lighting :—

5¾ annas per unit for the consumption of first 12 units.

5¼ annas per unit for the consumption from 13 to 24 units. and 5 annas per unit after the consumption of 24 units.

CHAPTER 6.
Industries.
LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Bidi-making and Tobacco-curing.

The aggregate capital invested in the four factories, was Rs. 58,03,000 including Rs. 48,03,000 as fixed capital in 1953-54. They employed about 129 workers who were paid Rs. 1,30,000 as wages. Besides these workers, 48 clerks, supervisors and technicians were employed who were paid Rs. 79,300 as salaries in 1953-54. The power house at Kolhapur employed about 100 workers in 1957. The wages paid to a skilled worker were Rs. 100 including D. A. and to a unskilled Rs. 60 including D. A. Overtime was also paid. The power house at Ichalkaranji employed about 20 workers, out of whom six were skilled workers, six unskilled and the remaining supervisors and clerks, in 1957.

Bidi-making and Tobacco-curing.

Bidi-making and Tobacco-curing.—As the land and climate in Shirol, Hatkanangale, Gadhinglaj and Karvir talukas are most suitable to growing tobacco, tabacco has been one of the most important cash crops in these parts of Kolhapur district. In 1881-82, the area under tobacco was of Kolhapur district. In 1881-82, the area under tobacco was 36,100 acres, the same increased to 47,628 acres in 1955-56. Till 1916, bidi making was carried on, on cottage basis. There was no local tobacco market and all the raw tobacco produced was sent out to Sangli. A tobacco market was organised at Jaisingpur in 1916. The establishment of this market, the assistance by way of tax concessions granted by the former Kolhapur State authorities to these artisans and the availability of rail road facilities, helped to stimulate the growth of organised tobacco-curing and bidi-making industries in the district. There were 10 such factories registered under the Factories Act in 1953-54. In Kolhapur city there were 40 bidi-making concerns in 1947; but in a majority of them, bidi-making was a side business. There were only seven establishments exclusively engaged in bidi-making and 253 persons were engaged in them.

The aggregate capital invested in nine [for which information was available] out of the ten factories registered under the Factories Act was Rs. 2,18,500 out of which Rs. 30,000 was in the form of fixed capital, in 1953-54. Both male and female labour was employed in these factories. About 290 workers including women were employed in the nine factories. They were paid Rs. 2,30,000 as wages. Besides these workers there were 12 persons who were employed in clerical capacity. They were paid Rs. 8,200 as salaries. The wages of a worker varied from Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per 1,000 bidis.

Tobacco-curing process consisted of drying the tobacco leaves, crushing them and grading them according to sizes. No machinery was required in this process. Bidis were manufactured by hands only. Leaves were cut with the help of scissors. One pair of scissors and a small knife worth Rs. 3 were the only implements used in bidi-making.

Tobacco and *tumari* leaves were the main raw-materials required in bidi-making. Local tobacco was mostly consumed in both the processes. *Tumari* leaves were brought from

Madhya Pradesh. Tobacco and *tumari* leaves worth Rs 4,39,000 were consumed by the nine bidi factories and 11,678 maunds of tobacco valued at Rs. 6,43,000 were cured in them in 1953-54.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Printing Presses.

They manufactured 1,13,700 bundles, each of 1,000 bidis. A bundle of 50 bidis was sold at annas five or six according to the quantity of tobacco and while cured tobacco at Rs. 1-12-0 per lb. in 1955.

Bidis were sold in the local market and were also sent to other parts of the State. They were sold by the manufacturers through their commission agents.

Printing Presses.

Printing Presses.—The printing industry in Kolhapur is at least as old as 1870, when 'Dnyana Sagar' a marathi weekly was started. Some small presses were started during 1900-1939. Dr. Balkrishna in his survey in 1926 says that there were 14 printing presses in Kolhapur town which employed 108 persons. Of these 14 concerns, two were started during 1886-1900, two during 1901-10, five during 1910-20 and four in 1921-26. One was described as 'hereditary'. The development of this industry was largely assisted by the demand of printed materials, by educational institutions, co-operative societies, banks, and cinemas. In 1947, there were 27 printing presses in Kolhapur city which engaged 202 persons. In the district as a whole, there were nine presses registered under the Factories Act including one Government printing press. All the presses printed books, booklets, hand-bills, memo-forms and invitation cards. Of the nine presses registered under the Factories Act, three presses published daily newspapers.

The aggregate capital investment in all the nine factories registered under the Factories Act was Rs. 9,06,000 including Rs. 3,50 000 as fixed capital in 1953-54. The mechanical equipment in all these concerns consisted of printing machine, cutting and stitching machines, treadles, perforating and binding machines.

Raw materials used by the presses were different types, ink, kerosene and stationery. These nine factories consumed raw materials worth Rs. 1,90,670 in 1953-54.

The number of persons employed in these nine factories was 210 including 60 persons who were employed as technicians, supervisors and clerks. These workers were paid Rs. 1,29,000 as wages while supervisory staff was paid Rs. 73,000.

Match Industry.

Match Industry.—A match factory was started in Kolhapur city in 1945. In its initial stages it was helped by the old Kolhapur State in securing suitable wood from local forests.

Capital Investment.

The aggregate capital invested in the factory was Rs. 1,54,050 including Rs. 28,977 as working capital in 1949, Rs. 1,09 375 including Rs. 7,780 as working capital in 1952 and Rs. 1,26,000 including Rs. 8,000 as working capital in 1953-54.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Match Industry.
Employment.

The number of persons employed in the factory in 1952 was 86 including 17 persons who were employed as clerks, supervisors and technicians. They were paid Rs. 34,043 as wages and salaries. Both male and female workers were generally paid on a contract basis for hand-rolling labels, filling boxes and labelling them at the rate of annas six per gross of match boxes. Wages of skilled employees varied from Rs. 25 to Rs. 150 each per month. The factory employed 35 workers who were paid about Rs. 20,000 as wages during 1953-54. In addition, 17 persons were employed as clerks and supervisors. They were paid Rs. 25,500 as salaries in 1953-54.

Implements and fuel consumption.

The implements and machinery consisted of a set of two peeling machines and a splinter chaffing machine. The factory consumed fuel and electricity worth Rs. 527 in 1949 and Rs. 2,222 in 1952.

Raw materials.

Savar wood (Bombax *malabaricum*) is the main raw material required for the manufacture of splinters and match boxes. This particular quality of wood is available in abundance in Radhanagari taluka and Panhala peta. About 210 tons or 10,500 cubic feet of *savar* wood worth Rs. 10,500 was consumed by the factory in 1947-48, 1,500 cubic ft. worth Rs. 2,400 in 1949 and 7,300 cubic ft. worth Rs. 16,881 in 1952. Besides *savar* wood, match paper and chemicals are also used in the manufacture of match boxes. The factory consumed about one ton of match paper valued at Rs. 600 and 24 cwt. of chemicals valued at Rs. 2,294 in 1949, three tons of match paper worth Rs. 7,922 and 84 cwt. of chemicals worth Rs. 88,954 in 1952.

Production.

The factory produced 6.000 gross of match boxes valued at Rs. 19,440 in 1949, 27,645 gross valued at Rs. 1,04,921 in 1952, and 27,600 gross valued at Rs. 10,500 in 1953-54.

Cement Processing.

Cement Processing.—There were two factories in the district engaged in cement processing, one manufacturing hume pipes and R. C. C. poles and the other cement tiles, in 1953-54 Both were started in 1945. During World War II there was a great demand for hume pipes, R. C. C. oples, and cement tiles, the supply of which was not readily available. These two factories were, therefore, organised to supply cement materials. There was great scope for expansion of these factories in view of irrigation and other construction schemes undertaken by Government. Short and irregular supply of cement was one of the greatest handicaps from which these processing factories suffered.

Capital.

In 1953-54 aggregate capital invested in these factories was Rs. 5 lakhs including Rs. 3 lakhs as working capital.

Employment.

About 70 workers—65 males and 5 females—were employed in them and they were paid Rs. 33,000 as wages. Eight persons were employed as clerks and supervisors who received Rs. 77,000 as salaries.

Raw materials, Implements and power.

Cement, steel and sand were the main raw materials required in the industry and both the factories consumed raw materials valued at Rs. 1,40,000 in 1953-54. Machinery and equipment used by the factories were moulding and reinforcing machines, mixers, testing machines, sand washing and jaw crushing machines. They consumed 900 k.w.h. power annually.

They produced hume pipes, R. C. C. poles and cement flouring tiles worth Rs. 3,11,700 in 1953-54. The products were sold in the local market and in surrounding areas. Usually they got orders from Public Works Department, District Local Boards, Municipalities and individual customers.

Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals.

The preparation of Ayurvedic medicines was carried on by Dr. Babasaheb Gune, Raj-Vaidya of the former Kolhapur State, long before the enforcement of the Factories Act in the State. He started a factory for the manufacture of patent Ayurvedic medicines on a commercial scale in 1944.

The aggregate capital invested in the factory was about Rs. 5 lakhs out of which Rs. 2,50,000 was the fixed capital in 1953-54. In the same year the factory employed 17 workers who received about Rs. 14,400 as wages; besides these workers, five persons were employed as supervisors who received Rs. 5,000 as salaries.

No power was used in the process of manufacture of medicines. Ayurvedic medicinal herbs which were used for the manufacture of medicines were brought from Konkan, the Punjab and the Himalayan region. Medicinal herbs valued at Rs. 40,000 were brought from these regions in 1953-54. Important medicines produced were syrups for cough and fevers and Asawas. Nearly 300 varieties of Ayurvedic medicines valued at Rs. 72,000 were produced in the factory in 1953-54.

India is the only country where *hirda* or myrabolan, which is important for tanin contents, is produced on a large scale. Kolhapur forests are very rich in myrabolan nuts. Total annual collection of *hirda* varied from 4 to 6 thousand tons in 1942-43. With abundant supply of *hirda* and encouragement given by the former local Jahagirdars a factory for extracting tanin from *hirda* was started at Amba in 1944.

The aggregate capital invested in the factory was Rs. 10,52,000. Out of this capital Rs. 8,72,000 were invested in land, buildings, and machinery and Rs. 1,80,000 were used as working capital in 1953-54; it employed 90 workers whose annual wage bill was Rs. 29,000. In addition, 16 workers were employed as supervisors, clerks and technicians who received Rs. 12,000 as salaries in 1953-54. The factory manufactured solid extract of *hirda* One ton of solid extract required about 2·5 to 3 tons of *hirda* depending on its tanin content. About 2,100 tons of *hirda*

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals.

nuts valued at Rs. 2,20,600 were consumed by the factory and about 680 tons of tanin extract valued at Rs. 3,34,300 were produced in 1953-54. The product was mostly exported to U. S. A. and U. K.

Soap Industry.

In 1954, there were nine units manufacturing soap in the district. All of them were started during the thirties and forties of the present century. Availability of groundnut oil and assistance given by the former State authorities in procuring caustic soda helped in the development of the industry. All these units were engaged in the manufacture of laundry soap. Out of the nine units, only one was registered under the Factories Act, 1948 and was using power in the manufacturing process. All others were small units in which manufacturong was done by hand. The fixed and working capital employed in the factory registered under the Factories Act, 1948, was Rs. 1 lakh and Rs. 14,000 respectively. Fourteen workers and four persons other than workers were employed in the factory and they were paid Rs. 5,300 and Rs. 7,300 respectively, as wages and salaries. Oils and chemicals valued at Rs. 46,000 were consumed and soap valued at Rs. 59,000 was produced in 1954.

Cine Industry.

Kolhapur can be regarded as one of the main centres of the film industry in Maharashtra State.

In Kolhapur district there are two studios situated in the city itself giving employment to about 130 persons on a permanent basis. Both the studios are well equipped with the latest cine equipments available in India. Movie cameras, trollies, are some of the items of studio machinery. Other permanent structures are the georgous plain sets, huge fort walls, wide cloth screens depicting scenes from epics and history, beautiful gardens etc. The mechanical equipment is mostly imported either from U. S. A. or U. K. and it costs a producer an investment worth a couple of lakhs of rupees to start upon picture production. The raw film also is one of the items of import. Both the studios have their own laboratories where the film is processed after the shooting is completed. The producers do not take the responsibility of exhibiting the films produced by them but they sell the rights for the State, for the region or for the World to the distributors who take it upon themselves to publicise the film and attract to it a wider market. One of the studios has a publicity department of its own and the expenditure on publicising is an important item of the total costs. The employment inflates when actual shooting takes place. Unlike other industries the studios do not work round the clock but are busy when the production work is in full swing. It is not that the studio owners, always produce their own pictures but often they give the studio on hire to other picture-producing concerns when a rental of about Rs. 350 to Rs. 500 per day is charged. The salaries paid to the staff. differ according to the skill that

is required on the part of the employee towards the finishing of the picture under production. A manual worker gets about Rs. 2-3-0 a day, the camera by about Rs. 1-8-0 a day, the decorator about Rs. 250 to Rs. 350 per month. Most of the higher staff such as directors, cameramen, actors and actresses are on a contractual assignment and their payment depends upon their market value or popularity. Leaving aside the case of cine workers in this category so far as the rank and file are concerned, their lot cannot be regarded as satisfactory from the point of view of employment and remuneration.

Most of the pictures produced by the studio-owners are Marathi which makes the market for the production limited. The non-availability of Hindi actors and actresses due to the incapacity of the home producers to pay their handsome salaries is one of the main causes for a very few Hindi pictures being produced by the Kolhapur studios. The pictures produced are social, historical and mythological as well. The cost of producing a picture ranges between Rs. 80,000 to Rs. 1,50,000. Most of the shooting is indoor for which sets are constructed in the studio itself. In historical and mythological pictures shooting is done on location. Generally speaking the cine industry in the district cannot be regarded as being in a state of prosperity. The equipment requires to be modernised and replaced, finance is not easy to obtain, taxation is heavy, market is limited, raw material is not easily available, new blood in the form of actors and actresses, story writers and music directors is not forthcoming. Under such circumstances the very continuance of the industry from its inauguration in 1930's till today could be regarded as a phenomenal achievement.

Industrial Estate.

The former Kolhapur State Government had set aside some area on the eastern outskirts of Kolhapur city for constructing sheds for industrial purposes. The area was known as "Shivaji Udyam Nagar" or "Small Scale Industrial Zone" This area measuring about 42 acres has been divided into 207 plots, of which, 192 plots have already been sold. Industrial sheds have been erected on 108 plots and about 80 plots are still vacant.

This industrial estate falls within the Pilot Community Project area, and the State Government has decided to convert the industrial zone into a full-fledged industrial estate by assisting the plot holders in constructing factory buildings and by starting some production-*cum*-training centres in the estate. The Central Ministry of Commerce and Industry has also started a common facility centres for the use of Small Scale units in the premises of the estate.

Government of India approved the scheme in 1957 and sanctioned a loan for it. A good deal of development, including roads, drainage and water pipe line has already been

CHAPTER 6. Industries. LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Industrial Estate.

completed. The plot-holders in the estate have formed a co-operative society known as "Kolhapur Udyam Co-operative Society Ltd." for the organisation and management of the estate.

About 207 factories are to be located in the estate. About 50 industrial establishments engaged mostly in engineering industry i.e., foundries, workshops, automobile repair shops, smithy, etc., exist in the industrial zone.

The industrial estate provides a factory space of different sizes and common facilities like supply of electricity for lighting and power, water, drainage and easy access to road or rail. The small entrepreneurs can thus utilize their limited financial resources for the purchase of machinery and for expanding their production. Factories located at the Estate are calculated to get the advantages of the common facility centre organised by the Small Industries Service Institute, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India which is equipped with modern machinery and allowed to be used on payment of nominal charges.

II—SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

There are many small scale and cottage industries, like hand-loom-weaving, silver and gold smithy, oil crushing brick and tile making, carpentry, leather working and tanning, fibre working and blacksmithy etc., in the district. They engaged in 1956 nearly 39,000 artisans. The table given below shows various small scale industries and the approximate number of persons engaged in them:—

TABLE No. 11.

TABLE SHOWING VARIOUS SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES AND NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN THEM.

Serial No.	Industry.	Number of persons engaged.	Important Centres.
1	2	3	4
1	Handloom Weaving ..	Rs. 3,900	Ichalkaranji, Kolhapur, Vadgaon, Kagal, Kodoli, Halkarni, Bhirewadi, Rendal, Nandani and Sarud.
2	Brick, Tile and Pottery ..	6,140	Kolhapur, Rashiwade, Hupari, Sarud, Halkarni, Radhanagari and Kagal.
3	Carpentry ..	4,810	Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Ajra and Rashivade.
4	Leather Working ..	3,508	Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Vadgaon, Gargoti, Nandany, Male, Mudshingi.

TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

Serial No.	Industry.	Number of persons engaged.	Important Centres.
1	2	3	4
5	Fibre Working ..	3,661	Alate, Kabnur, Vadgaon, Hupari and Kodoli.
6	Blacksmithy ..	2,663	Kolhapur, Rashivade and Radhanagari.
7	Silver and Goldsmithy ..	2,500	Hupari, Kolhapur, Kagal, Madilge and Gargoti.
8	Oil Crushing .	1,150	Vadgaon, Halkarni and Kodoli.
9	Tanning ..	609	Kolhapur, Vadgaon, Gargoti, Ichalkaranji and Male.
10	Bamboo Working ..	1,090	Kolhapur, Kagal and Ichalkaranji.
11	Bidi Making ..	450	Kolhapur, Jayasingpur and Ichalkaranji.
12	Poho and Churmure Making.	189	Kolhapur, Rashivade, Walve, Nigwe, Nasari, Murgund and Ajra.
13	Agriculture ..	150	Kolhapur, Radhanagari and Shelap.
14	Snuff Manufacturing ..	50	Halkarni and Nandani.
15	Lacquer work industry..	32	Patgaon, Kale and Ajra.
16	Miscellaneous ..	7,350	Do. do.

Handloom Weaving.

Among the existing cottage industries, hand-loom weaving is the most important industry engaging nearly 3,900 artisans in 1956. A majority of the artisans engaged in it does the work of weaving and the remaining persons do subsidiary processes like winding, sizing, dyeing etc.

There are about 1905 hand-loom and 75 power-loom establishments in the whole of Kolhapur district with Ichalkaranji, Kolhapur, Rendal, Vadgaon, Kagal, Kodoli, Halkarni, Nandani, Bhirewadi and Sarud as important centres. Out of the 5,921 existing looms 5,248 are automatic and 673 are throw shuttle-looms. Ichalkaranji is the biggest centre which possesses the largest number of looms. Of the total number of persons engaged in hand-loom weaving in 1957 889 are independent workers and 3,000 are engaged on daily wages. There are 1,196 master weavers* in the district. Of the total number of looms, 889 artisans possessed one loom each, 518 possessed two looms each ; 175, three looms each :

*Master-weavers give yarn and other raw materials to be worked up in the homes of the workers and take back cloth after paying wages.

146, four looms each ; 110, five looms each ; 93, six looms each ; 50, seven looms each ; 30, eight looms each ; 20, nine looms each ; 14, ten looms each ; 6, eleven looms each ; 8, twelve looms each ; 4, thirteen looms each ; 4, fourteen looms each ; 6, fifteen looms each and 3, nineteen looms each. One had sixteen looms and the other had eighteen looms. There were three weavers who possessed twenty-four, forty and forty-two looms each.

Raw materials.

Yarn of different counts, dyeing and sizing materials are the main raw materials required in the industry. Yarn of different counts is being used in the production of hand-loom cloth. Approximate consumption of yarn per loom per month is as follows:—

Count of Yarn.	Weight of Yarn in lbs.	Average Yardage per lb.
10's	100	2
20's	80	2½
30's	80	3
40's	60	3½
60's	40	4

Artificial silk is also used in the lining of a saree. Many of these weavers use paste made from jowar flour for sizing. Some of them use paste made of dried tamarind seeds for this purpose. These raw materials are obtained from Bombay by local merchants.

Tools and Equipment.

Almost all looms are automatic. There are only about 673 fly-shuttle-looms. The main equipment of a weaver consists of a loom and its accessories. The other requirements are shuttles, creel, bobbins, healds, dobbies, pirns, etc. The cost of a whole set excluding creel is about Rs. 100. The cost of a creel is about Rs. 150. The total cost of equipment and tools varies with the number of looms the artisan possesses.

Production.

Thick *khaddar* coating, shirting, *saris* of different varieties and *patki* or cloth for mattresses are the main products of hand-loom weaving. Of the total hand-loom production about ninety per cent. consists of *saris*, six per cent. *dhotis* and four per cent. other cloth. Weavers from the western parts of the district weave mostly thick *khaddar* and from other parts weave *saris* of different qualities and *patkis*. A weaver is able to weave a nine yards cotton *sari* in a day.

The automatic and pit-looms together produce about 6·9 million yards of cloth in the form of *saris*, *dhoties* and *khans*. Most of the looms are used for manufacturing *dhotis*, shirting, coating, *khans*, etc.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.
Handloom Industries.
Production.

The cost of production of 40 pieces of *saris* of nine yards each using 60s × 80s which are mostly manufactured at Ichalkaranji (1956) is as follows: —

	Rate per 10 lbs. Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Warp 60s, 20 lbs.	63	0	0	126	0	0
Weft 80s, 15 lbs.	68	0	0	102	0	0
Border 60/2, 2 lbs. ...	57	0	0	11	7	0
Art Silk 120/2, 8 lbs., 23 Tolas	44	7	0	38	2	6
Art Silk 200, 2½ lbs. ...	35	8	0	8	14	3
				286	7	9
Dying charges at Rs. 13-8-0 per 10 lbs. ...				76	8	0
Wages of processing and Weaving at Rs. 4 per piece.				160	0	0
				522	15	9

Cost price of each *sari* is about Rs. 13-1-0. It is sold at Rs. 14-0-0.

Marketing.

Weavers usually sell their products in villages. *Saris* of finer counts are sent to Bombay, Poona, Nasik, Sholapur, Belgaum, Dharwar and Ahmednagar. Generally they sell their goods in open markets. But those who take yarn from co-operative societies for production sell their finished products through them.

Employment and labour.

Hand-loom weaving provides full-time employment and it is carried throughout the year. Males generally weave and females and children do subsidiary and preliminary processes in weaving. Weavers have less work in rainy-season, when their business is dull. They get Rs. 2-4-0 to Rs. 3-4-0 for weaving a piece of 8½ yards according to the count of yarn they use.

Finance.

A weaver usually requires Rs. 300 to 400 per hand-loom and Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,200 per power-loom for investment. They usually borrow this amount from local *savkars* or co-operative societies.

Training Parties.

The two Government peripatetic schools, one for cotton weaving and the other for dyeing and printing were stationed at Ichalkaranji and Halkarni in 1950 and 1953 respectively. Twenty-four students were trained in each one of these schools in the scientific methods of hand-loom weaving, dyeing and printing during the period.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Handloom Industries. *Training Parties.*

There were 36 weavers co-operative societies in the district at the end of June 1957. They had 3,466 members, Rs. 1,17,349 as share capital and Rs. 1,31,441 as reserve fund at the end of June 1955. Out of these 36 societies, the working of two societies was at a stand-still. About thirty societies were engaged in the work of distribution of yarn. Only four to five societies undertook activities relating to production. Due to slum in the yarn market, many societies incurred heavy losses, especially those which were distributing yarn only. The working of many of these societies was at a stand-still.

Brick and Tile Making and Pottery.

This industry is mostly in the hands of *kumbhars*. These artisans work independently in rural areas and make earthen-pots, toys, tiles and bricks. They do similar work in urban areas also. In a few cases they are employed by contractors on daily wages for manufacturing bricks and tiles. In 1956 there were about 6,000 artisans engaged in the industry. The main centres around which the industry is located are Kolhapur, Vasagade, Halkarni, Kodoli, Rashiwade, Sarud and Hupari.

Raw materials.

Suitable red-earth, half-burnt-charcoal, coal-dust, and other types of burning waste, horse-dung, etc., constitute the main raw-materials. Half-burnt-charcoal and other types of burning waste are obtained from mills and railway stations and horse-dung locally.

Tools and equipment.

The chief tools of a potter are wooden or earthen-wheels; three pieces of *babul* or *khair* wood, one being four inches long, other three inches, and the third two inches; a stone four inches long and four inches broad having a handle let in and a stick to turn the wheel, brick-kiln for baking earthen-pots, tiles and bricks and wooden-moulds of various shapes and sizes for making clay toys and bricks. The construction of the potter's wheel could be described as under. A flat piece of wood is first cut into a circular form of about eight inches in diameter and a small flat circular stone having a hollow in the middle is fixed in the centre of the piece of wood. Six thin sticks are inserted as spokes in the piece of wood which serves as the nave. Three hoops are then tied to the ends of the spokes with a thin rope and the circumference of the wheel is loaded with a mixture of clay and goat hair to make it heavy. A stout wooden-peg about nine inches long is buried in the ground. A pit is filled with water, and the wheel is placed on the peg, which rests in the hollow of the stone fixed in the nave.

Production

These *kumbhars*, manufacture bricks and tiles only from November to May as open air operations are not possible during the rainy season. They manufacture bricks of two sizes namely, (1) 12" × 6" and (2) 9" × 3½". They make earthen toys and pots during the rainy season.

Cost of production of 2,50,000 bricks in 1956 was as follows:—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Cost of earth including cartage for 10 carts ...	10	0	0
Watering charge	2	0	0
Coolie charges for shifting bricks and helping the brick layer.	12	0	0
Laying charges	100	0	0
Charcoal dust, coal dust—2½ cart loads ...	17	0	0
Wastage	5	0	0
Total ..	146	0	0

Process of making an earthen pot.

Red earth is mixed with horse-dung and soaked for a given time with water for the preparation of earthen-pots. The mixture is then kneaded properly and trodden twice. It is then placed in the required quantities on the wooden nave of the potter's wheel which is turned with a stick fixed in a hole made for the purpose in the rim to get sufficient motion. The operator then gives the clay the required form with the help of a piece of wet cloth in his fingers. The pot is both enlarged and strengthened by continual handling, turning and applying fresh mud and a requisite shape is given to it. The pots are then dried and a solution of red chalk and black earth is applied to them externally. They are then polished by rubbing with strings of smooth *kanjka* and sometimes with *kate bhorra* seeds, besmeared with oil. The pots are finally baked in a kiln in the following way. At the bottom of a kiln some rice husk and cow-dung are spread and the pots are buried in regular rows below the husk and cakes which are plentifully heaped over the pottery. The kiln is set on fire in the evening The pots are taken out after the whole husk and cow-dung cakes are burnt, by about next morning. The main earthen vessels made are pots to fill water, *budukulis, deras, ghagars* and *moghas,* round pots or *kundales,* saucers, *parals,* cups or *jambs,* covering of pots or *jhakanis, chilam* or smoking pipe and *mandans.* These pots are sold at prices varying from annas four to Rs. 5 in accordance with the size and quality.

Two kinds of tiles are made in the district—one cylindrical and the other triangular. For the making of cylindrical tiles twelve bullock loads of clay, two head loads of horse-dung, and two head loads of kiln ashes are mixed in water and turned into thick mud. One worker prepares the mud, another gives the requisite quantity to be placed on the wheel and the third turns the wheel and makes the tiles in the shape of a hollow cylinder tapering towards one end. These cylinders are about seven to eight inches long and about three inches in diameter. While wet, two cuts are made with a piece of stone or wood on each side of the cylinder, leaving it joined together on the upper or lower end. They are then dried and baked in the kiln. These tiles were sold in 1956 at Rs. 18 to Rs. 20 per 100. Three workers make about 300 cylinders and 600 tiles in a day.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Brick and Tile Making and Pottery. *Process of making an earthen pot.*

For triangular tiles 16 bullock loads of clay, three head loads of horse-dung, and three head loads kiln ashes are mixed in water and are kneaded. The mixture is then turned into flat triangular pieces of the required size and allowed to dry a little. Each piece is placed over an oblong wooden mould having its upper side convex and tapering towards the end. The mould is then drawn through the mixture leaving the tiles on the ground and they are afterwards baked.

Process of brick making.

Bricks of the sizes 12" × 6" and 9" × 3½" × 3" are manufactured in the district. Red or black earth is first sieved to free it from stones. It is then moistened after mixing it with ash. The mixture of moistened earth and ash is afterwards pounded and made into balls each large enough to make a brick. Finally from this mixture bricks are made with the help of a wooden mould and are dried and baked in kilns. The process of baking usually lasts for about a fortnight. On an average 4,000 bricks are baked in a fortnight in a kiln built on an area of 100 sq. feet. Two persons make 200 bricks per day. The brick of size 12" × 6" was sold at Rs. 100 to Rs. 110 per 1,000 and of the second size at Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per 1,000 in 1956).

Employment and labour.

Brick and tile manufacturing is a seasonal industry. Potter's work is brisk during the fair season and dull during the rainy-season. They usually make earthen pots and toys etc. during the rains. Their women-folk help them in bring clay and mixing it with horse-dung and ashes. They also help them in the sale of their products. Earnings of both a male and a female potter are about Rs. 150 per month in the brisk season, when they manufacture bricks and tiles. In the remaining period they earn about Rs. 50 to Rs. 55 per month. The whole family busies itself in the work and generally no outside labour is employed in this operation. Their working hours are about 10 per day. Sometimes they also work on fields whenever they have no other work to do. In a city like Kolhapur they are also employed by contractors and are paid Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per day.

Marketing.

The market for these articles is generally local. *Kumbhars* in rural and urban areas sell their products directly to customers. A small percentage of the products from the cities and towns is sent to neighbouring villages.

Finance.

Potters generally require a small investment of about Rs. 250 and Rs. 500 in this occupation. In villages they take an advance from customers before executing any contract for the supply of bricks or tiles. In urban areas there are some contractors who engage *Kumbhars* for the manufacture of bricks or tiles. They require an investment to the extent of Rs. 3,000.

Co-operatives.

There were eight potters' societies at the end of June 1957. The total number of members of these societies was 456. They had Rs. 8,302 as share capital and Rs. 25,160 as working capital. They purchased raw materials which were supplied to their members.

Leather Working.

Leather working is another important cottage industry employing nearly 3,508 artisans. *Mochis* or *chambhars* who are engaged in it produce and repair *chappals*, sandals, slippers and shoes. Kolhapur city is one of the biggest centres of producing footwear, namely, *chappals*. This city had 61 concerns of leatherwears which employed nearly 285 persons in 1947. Besides Kolhapur, there are other centres like Vadagaon, Ichalkaranji, Gargoti and Nandani where footwears are made.

Raw materials.

The main raw materials required in leather working are tanned leather for soles, dyed and fancy leather for uppers, belts and straps etc. In addition to this, they require tacks, nails, buttons, rings and polishing materials. The fine quality of leather which is used for uppers is generally brought from Bombay or Madras by wholesalers. Heavy leather is purchased from local tanners.

Tools and Equipment.

Pair of scrapers, (*rapi*), iron spike (*airana*), *ari*, *hasti*, anvil hammers (*hatodi*) and wooden blocks (*sachas*) etc. are the tools used in leather working. An average leather shop contains a set of tools worth Rs. 125 while an ordinary independent artisan has to invest Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 in tools. In addition to this, a leather sewing machine is also required, which costs about Rs. 150 to Rs. 200. All artisans cannot afford to purchase a machine.

Production.

Footwears of different kinds like *chappals*, sandals or *paitana*, slippers, *jode* or shoes, both English and Indian type, are mainly produced. Some artisans also manufacture leather articles like money purses and suit cases on a small scale. One artisan is able to produce five pairs of *chappals* a day, and sells them at about Rs. 20.

Cost of production of four pairs of special type of chappals in 1956 :—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Upper leather with lining 2 sq. feet at 1/4 per sq. foot.	2	8	0
Sole leather 4 lbs. at Rs. 1-8-0 per lb. ...	6	0	0
Labour charges at Re. 1 per pair .	4	0	0
Nails, thread etc.	0	8	0
	13	0	0
Net profit .	3	0	0
	16	0	0

A pair of ordinary *chappal* is sold at between Rs. 3 and Rs. 3-8-0. The price of a special type of Kolhapur *chappal* and a sandal is Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 and Rs. 7 to Rs. 8. A pair of shoes (English type) is sold at Rs. 8 to Rs. 15.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Leather working. *Marketing.*

Artisans in the urban as well as rural areas sell their products in local markets and even maintain their own shops. Some leather establishments in Kolhapur city send a part of their produce to cities like Bombay and Poona through their agents.

Employment and Labour.

Leather workers in rural areas usually do not employ outside labour in this operation. But in urban areas outside labour is employed in leather establishments. In villages and towns both males and females work in this industry. In Kolhapur no female labour is employed in leather shops. An urban artisan earns about Rs. 125 per month and a rural artisan about Rs. 75. In Kolhapur these artisans are paid Re. 1 for producing a pair of *chappals*.

Finance.

An artisan requires about Rs. 500 as an investment to start with this occupation. These artisans are very poor, and are always in debt. They obtain capital required for investment from local *savakars* at high rates of interest.

Co-operatives.

There were 15 leather workers' co-operative societies at the end of June 1957. The number of members of these societies including four tanners' societies was 319. They had Rs. 15,025 as share capital, Rs. 723 as reserve fund. In 1955-56, eight societies consumed raw materials required in tanning and leather working to the extent of Rs. 75,424 and produced goods worth of Rs. 53,996. The total turnover of these societies was less in relation to the amount invested in raw material because many members sold their products directly in the market and not through the societies.

Tanning.

Tanning industry is found in almost all villages in the district. In every village there are one or two *Dhor* families who do this work. But the most important centres of tanning are Kolhapur, Vadgaon, Ichalkaranji and Gargoti. There were 26 tanners' establishments in Kolhapur city alone, engaging about 67 persons in the year 1950. The *chamars* at some places in the district also do the work of tanning in addition to their routine work of shoe-making. There are nearly 609 artisans engaged in this industry.

Raw materials.

Raw hides, lime and some chemicals like potassium dichromate constitute the main raw materials in tanning. Raw hides and skins of buffaloes, oxes, cows, goats, etc. are generally purchased from the *Mahars, Mangs,* and butchers in the towns. In villages and towns local hides are purchased at Rs. 12 per piece. In addition to these, raw materials like *hirda* or myrobalan and *babul* bark are also used in this process. Both are locally available. *Babul* bark is purchased at Rs. 6 to Rs. 7 per maund and *hirda* at between annas six and annas eight per *pailee* (four seers) and lime at between annas four and annas five per pailee (four seers).

Two or three lime pits (*chunad*), tanning pits, washing tanks (*nivalan*) and tools like wooden mallets (*tipas*), *rapees* (*rapa*), *aris* (*ari*), a *scythe*, *ubaran*, an axe and a few tubs and barrels are the main tools used in this industry. The minimum cost of a set of such equipment is put at about Rs. 250.

The cost of construction of these pits was about Rs. 600 to Rs. 700 in 1956.

Production.

A family of four members tans on an average 15 hides and keeps 15 under the process of tanning in a month. It thereby realises a gross income of about Rs. 650.

Cost of tanning 15 hides in 1956.

	Rs.	a.	p.
Cost of hides	360	0	0
Cost of lime	3	12	0
Cost of watering	15	0	0
Hirda	30	0	0
Babul bark	105	0	0
Wages per man at Rs. 2	30	0	0
Wages per female per day at Re. 1 ...	15	0	0
	558	12	0

The average net monthly income of a tanner's family thus comes to less than Rs. 40.

Process of tanning.

The hide is macerated in lime water to separate the hair, the fat and the fleshy parts from it. After the hide is well soaked, the hair is scraped with a scraper and the fat and fleshy parts are removed with a knife or *rapi*. It is then washed in a running stream and soaked for nearly three days in a solution of three parts of *babul* bark and one part of *hirda* water. To tan the hide thoroughly, soaking is repeated thrice. The hide is then tied into a bag and hung up with a stronger solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water. It is exposed to the sun and on the eighth day it is washed in a stream and dried. Thus the tanner gets a tanned hide.

By-products.

The flesh obtained from a tanned hide is on an average about 2 lbs. per piece. It is sold to local farmers who use it as manure.

Marketing.

Tanned hides which are used as sole leather are generally sent to Bombay and Poona from where there exists a large demand for them. They are also sold in the local market. Many a time these tanners are compelled to undersell their products, because they cannot afford to wait till the market prices are favourable to them.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Tanning. *Employment and labour.*

Tanning provides full-time employment. Tanners work from morning till evening. Wet season is a slack season of this industry. Generally no outside labour is employed in it. They work with the help of their families. But at Kolhapur and Vadagaon where this industry is organised on a large scale, many artisans are employed on daily wages in the tanning concerns and they are paid Rs. 2 per tanned piece of hide. An average earning of a tanner's family working in a village is about Rs. 75 to Rs. 100 per month.

Finance.

The minimum investment required in this industry is about Rs. 100 for tools and equipment and Rs. 750 to Rs. 1,000 as working capital. Tanners usually borrow this amount at high rates of interest from local *savakars*.

Co-operatives.

The peripatetic tanning school was shifted to this district in September 1950. Till June 1954 it had completed three sessions—two at Kolhapur proper and one at Vadagaon. More than 20 hereditary and non-hereditary artisans and some casual students were trained in chrome-tanning, glue-manufacture and and other taning processes like pit as well as bag methods.

There were four tanners co-operative societies at the end of June 1956. The number of members of these societies including eight leather workers societies was 286. These societies consumed raw materials required in tanning and leather working to the extent of Rs. 75,424 and produced goods worth Rs. 53,996. The total turnover of these societies was less in relation to the amount invested in raw material because many members sold their products directly in the market and not through the societies.

Rope-Making.

There are vast plantations of *sisal* fibre in the district and it has enabled a considerable number of persons to be engaged in fibre or rope making industry. It is said that there are about 3,661 artisans engaged in it. They come from the *Mang* caste and rope-making is their hereditary occupation. They produce ropes of different sizes. Alte, Vadgaon, Hupari, Kadoli and Kabnur are the main centres of rope-making in the district.

Raw Materials.

Fibre and colours constitute the main raw materials in the process of rope-making. Hatkanangale, Panhala, Radhanagari and Shahuwadi talukas have vast plantations of *sisal* fibre which is used in rope-making. The leaves of *sisal* plant are retted in water for about four days and are beaten with wooden mallets to separate the fibre from the other material.

Tools and Equipment.

Tools and equipment in rope-making consist of cutters. (*khurpa*), knives (*koyata*), movers (*chirana*), *dhopatani*, *pat*, *pillanye*, *phali*, *bail lakadi*, which cost about Rs. 10 to 12.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Rope-making. *Production.*

Mangs produce ropes of different sizes and cater for local needs. They produce brooms from *sisal* plant leaves, and sell them at two annas each. The cost of a rope of 1½" diameter and 22 yards long is about Rs. 10 including the wages of two workers. Such kinds of ropes are sold at between Rs. 10 and Rs. 11 each. They also make ropes of small sizes and sell them at prices varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 10 each, according to the size and quality.

Process of rope making (*Sisal* fibre).—A quantity of fibre is taken and twisted into thin strands which are then by the same process carried to a suitable length. One person takes the long strand and the other goes to a distance of 30 to 60 feet and starts again twisting it. The twisted length is thus folded and again twisted with the help of *Khalbat* into rope consisting of threee to nine strands as required.

Marketing.

The market for these articles is generally local. *Mangs* sell their produce directly to customers, which involves a considerable waste of time due to higgling that takes place between the seller and the customer.

Employment.

Rope-making is a seasonal industry. Artisans make ropes for about eight months in a year. In the rainy season they work on fields to supplement their income. The income of a *Mang* family dependent on this occupation is about Rs. 35 to Rs. 40 per month.

Investment.

A very small amout of investment is required in this occupation, as expenditure on raw-materials and tools is considerably less.

Co-operatives.

One Government peripatetic school for fibre-working was stationed at a village, Talasande in Hatkanangale taluka, from June 1955. It concluded two sessions till June 1957 and trained about 30 students in fibre-working. There were five fibre and rope maker societies at the end of June 1957. These societies had 107 members, Rs. 1,895 as share capital, and Rs. 7,569 as working fund.

Silver and Gold Industry.

This is an important village industry of the district, in which *Sonars* are engaged. But in the urban areas and at places like Hupari, persons of different castes like Marathas, Brahmins, Jains, Muslims, Kshatriyas and *Lohars* are engaged in this occupation. This industry divides itself into *six groups* according to the nature of work performed by each of them There are, in the first place, local shroffs or *Sarafs* whose business is confined mainly to the sale of gold and silver ornaments. They keep a stock of gold and silver, and are found at places like Kolhapur, Hupari and Kagal. They entrust the work of making various articles of gold and silver to a large body of local artisans. The second group contains two distinct categories of workers, (1) those who make gold ornaments, (2) those who make

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Silver and Gold Industry.

silver ornaments. The third group specialises in the manufacture of gold and silver beads or *goojarve* which necessitates an amount of specialization and skill. The fourth makes rolled gold ornaments. The fifth and the last group consists of miscellaneous workers who make gold and silver ornaments, and articles of various metals like copper and brass etc. In rural areas *Sonars* serve local customers who give them the required quantity of gold or silver in advance for making ornaments. There were about 2,500 artisans in 1956 engaged in this industry, out of whom about 1,000 followed hereditary occupation. In Kolhapur city alone the total number of establishments of *Sarafs* and goldsmiths was 365 in which about 982 persons were engaged in 1956.

Raw Materials.

Silver, gold and different solders etc. constitute the main raw materials in the industry.

Tools and Equipment.

The main equipment of these workers in gold and silver, bead makers and rolled gold ornament makers are anvil, hammers (*hatoda*), bellow (*bhata*) pincers (*chimata*), pots (*kundi*) and crucibles (*musi*), moulds (*pagas*), nails (*salai*) and other tools for ornament work. An artisan maintains two such types of sets. A small establishment possesses tools worth about Rs. 100 and an establishment of the biggest size about Rs. 1,000. In Kolhapur, a few establishments use machinery for rolling strings of silver and for punching and also dye-presses.

Production.

Artisans working in these different sections of the industry manufacture gold and silver ornaments, like bangles, various types of bracelets, rings, strings of beads, neckwear, silver frames, gold and silver buttons, water vessels etc. In villages also these artisans manufacture the same types of ornaments. They get orders in advance along with the provision of raw material. Silver ornaments to the extent of 3½ lakhs of *tolas* are reported to be prepared in the district every month.

Cost of Production.

Cost of production varies with the type and nature of the article produced. But it can be said that on an average one and half annas worth labour is spent on an article of silver weighing a *tola*.

Process of gold and silver-bead making.—The metal, either gold or silver, is first pressed into plain thin sheets which are then cut into small square pieces. These are then cast into tiny moulds to receive semi-circular cap-like shapes. On an average over 500 such caps are produced in an hour. These caps are then properly sorted into suitable pairs which are fitted over each other and fashioned into tiny balls. They are then covered with borax powder and are, after some time, taken into a small air-tight chamber in which the artisan works. They are sufficiently heated over the steady flame of an oil lamp, and then the two caps are joined to one another which produces a bead.

Tordi or anklet made of silver is another important ornament. It is made of silver thread and sheet. Very small rings made of silver thread are connected to each other to a length ranging from five inches to eleven inches as required. The chain has a breadth of about 1/10th of an inch to which silver beads are hanged from one end to the other.

Cost of production.

Marketing.

Artisans in villages maintain small shops in their houses where they make ornaments from gold and silver on orders in advance. Artisans and *Sarafs* at Hupari and Kolhapur maintain regular customers. Many a time they visit big cities like Bombay and Poona for the sale of their articles.

Finance.

The artisan requires about Rs. 800 to start with the occupation on a small scale. He has to purchase tools and a little quantity of gold and silver as raw materials. A goldsmith's establishment with four or five artisans working in it requires about Rs. 5,000 as capital investment. However, artisans—*Sonars*—who are engaged in this industry are generally poor. They do not possess enough capital to start the occupation even on a small-scale. They have, therefore, to depend upon advance orders from customers. Sometimes they obtain advance in the form of metal from outside merchants on the condition to return to them the manufactured products. Some obtain raw materials on credit and others borrow from local *savakars*.

Employment and Labour.

The industry requires hard labour. Males and females and children of artisans, families work in it. The work also requires some skill and an artistic mind. At places like Hupari and Kolhapur these workers come from nearby villages and are engaged by master goldsmiths. Artisans working in both gold and silver establishments in urban areas are paid at piece-rate i.e., one and half annas to three annas for converting one *tola* of gold into ornament. Two artisans make ornaments weighing 25 to 30 tolas in a day. Some skilled artisans are also employed on monthly wages of Rs. 35 to Rs. 45 each. Those who make gold and silver beads are employed on contract by *Karkhandars*. The rate of payment varies between Rs. 2 and Rs. 4 per 1,000 beads. A skilled worker makes 100 to 200 beads per hour. The work of fitting circular caps over each other by joining requires some skill. The worker is paid at the rate of Rs. 10 per 1,000 beads. A large bulk of the artisans in this industry accept wage work. The demand for all types of work is usually more intense from October to June. Business is universally dull in the rainy season. The work of bead-making is far from pleasant. Conditions under which workers have to work affect their health and efficiency, with the result that they fall a prey to various diseases of lungs.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Silver and Gold Industries. *Co-operative Societies.*

There were two metal workers' societies organised at Kolhapur and Hupari in 1956. The society at Kolhapur was organised by tinsmiths, coppersmiths, and brasssmiths. The society at Hupari was organised by silver workers. Both these societies were quite new. Their organisers were neither successful in getting bank loan nor loan from Government. These two societies had 98 members, Rs. 3,500 as share capital and Rs. 893 as working capital at the end of June 1956.

Blacksmithy.

In all important villages in the district, there are two or three *Lohar* families who do the work of black-smiths. They produce small iron articles like frying pans, scarpers, spoons and *chhanis*. They repair buckets and iron tools like knives, sickles, scythes and horse-shoes and agricultural implements like ploughs, etc. The number of artisans engaged in the industry was 2,653 in 1956. Main centres around which this industry is located are Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Hupari, and Rashiwade. There were some *Lohars* who did the work of carpenters in addition to their usual work. They repaired agricultural implements like bullock carts.

Raw materials.

Iron, tin sheets, iron bars, angles, *babul* wood etc. constitute the main raw materials of the *Lohars*. They purchase these articles in the local market.

Tools and Equipment

Tools and equipment used by these artisans consist of one *bhata*, or pair of bellows, anvil, *pakkads* (*sandasi*) chinni (*channi*), hammers (*hatoda*), *ghans* and *hangada* (shingada). *Shingada* is a thick iron flat piece of about 18 inches in length, one end of which has a tapering round and the other end has a square with two holes. The round portion is used for preparing round rings of different sizes and other holes are used as hollows for boring holes on iron sheets. Rings of iron etc. are sized with the help of this instrument. *Shingcda* is shared in common by three or four artisans. The total cost of the whole set excluding *shingada* is Rs. 250. The cost of *shingada* is about Rs. 200.

A big establishment in urban areas possesses a set of equipment worth about Rs. 400 while the smallest one is worth about Rs. 30 to 40.

Employment and labour.

Blacksmithy is a full-time occupation. In the urban areas the monthly income of an artisan varies from Rs. 125 to Rs. 150. In villages it is Rs. 30 to 45 per month. A worker who is employed to help the artisan is paid Rs. 1-12-0 to Rs. 2 per day.

Finance.

A small investment of Rs. 100 is required to start this occupation. It is either obtained from hereditary resources or borrowed from persons who give orders.

Co-operative societies.

There were four societies of carpenters and smiths at the end of June 1956. The total number of their members was 101. They had share capital of Rs. 4,927 and reserve funds of Rs. 147 and working capital of Rs. 27,663.

Carpentry.

Carpenters or *sutars* are hereditary artisans. They are found all over the district. Each village contains one or two *sutar* families who produce implements of agriculture, bullock carts and repair village houses. Some village *sutars* are carpenter-cum-*backsmiths*. They do the work of black smiths in addition to their usual work. They fit iron tyres on the wheels of carts. In towns they are engaged in making furniture or house building. Some artisans make handlooms, articles like small boxes etc. There are about 4,810 carpenters engaged in the industry out of whom about 2,000 are in Kolhapur city alone. Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji and Ajra are the main centres of this industry.

Raw Materials.

Wood of different kinds—teak and jungle, nails, screws and polishing material etc. are the main raw materials required in carpentry. *Babul* wood which is used in making parts of bullock carts is supplied by farmers or purchased locally. Good quality of teak wood is brought from Kanara forest and Bombay. Other ordinary varieties of wood are available locally.

Tools and Equipment.

Tools required are chisels (*patali*), saws (*karwat*), files (*kanas*), planing machines (*randha*). measuring foot (foot *patti*). rods (*girmit*) etc. The total cost of these tools is about Rs. 125.

Production.

Furniture like tables, chairs, agricultural implements like bullock carts, ploughs, looms and boxes are the articles generally produced. Four carpenters working for about 12 days make one cart costing about Rs. 250; the cost of wood used in it is about Rs. 125.

Cost of production.

Cost of making a chair in 1956.

	Rs.	a.	p.
Cost of Wood ¾ cubic foot, Rs. 12 per cubic foot.	9	0	0
Polishing material	1	4	0
Cost of nails, screws, etc	1	0	0
Wages of a carpenter per day . .	3	8	0
Wages of a carpenter mate	1	8	0
	16	4	0

Usually *sutars* do not get profit in producing small articles. These articles are sold, more or less, at the same price at which they are produced. The cost of a window of 4′ × 2½ is about Rs. 12 including labour charges. It is sold at Rs 12-8-0 to Rs. 13.

Marketing.

Market for these articles is generally local. These *sutars* or *kharkhandars* who own shops book orders in advance. These artisans produce and sell small articles in local markets in the rainy season when they get less work.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Carpentry. *Employment and Labour.*

It is a part time work in villages and a full time job in towns. The monthly earnings of a *sutar* in urban areas vary from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 and from Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 in rural areas. In urban areas almost all *sutars* are wage earners. They get Rs. 4 each per day and a helper gets Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2 per day in 1956.

Finance.

This community is very poor, as most of them are wage earners. Some of them are found to be indebted.

Co-operative Societies.

There were four societies of carpenters and smiths at the end of June 1956. The total number of their members was 101. They had share capital of Rs. 4,927, reserve funds of Rs. 147 and working capital of Rs. 27,663.

Oil Crushing.

Kolhapur district produces groundnut on a large scale. Oil crushing is, therefore, an important industry. It is done by power mills, as well as by village *ghanis*. But village *ghanis* are much larger in number and therefore press more oilseeds than mills working on power. There are about nine oil mills and 890 *country ghanis*. Village *ghanis* are mostly wooden or stone *ghanis* worked by a single bullock. Nearly every village has a *ghani*. This industry engages nearly 1,150 artisans who are mostly *lingayat-telis*. Oil crushing is their hereditary occupation.

Raw Materials.

Oil seeds are the main raw material required in oil crushing. Groundnuts are mainly crushed. They are purchased in local markets and are stored in sufficient quantity for the brisk season.

Tools and Equipment.

Tools and equipment required in the occupation are one *ghani* and one or two bullocks, according to the size of the ghani. The construction of the country *ghani* could be described as under: It consists of a wooden trough, which holds the seed, and a wooden cylinder about four feet high fitted right in the centre of the trough with a heavy cross beam on the top in a standing position, one end of which rests about a foot from ground. A semi-circular block of wood is attached to the lower part of the trough with a piece of wood projecting and forming a right angle with the upper beam at the end nearest to the ground. On this piece of wood a large stone is placed and communication with the upper beam is effected by means of ropes playing on a pulley, and as the ropes are tightened and the block rises the pressure of the cylinder is increased. A blind folded bullock is yoked to the upper beam. The bullock goes round the trough and by the revolving of the cylinder the seeds are crushed and formed into a mass, and by the pressure of the cylinder, oil is squeezed out and falls to the bottom of the trough, while the residum forms into a solid mass round the sides of the trough as oil cakes. The cost of a country *ghani* is about Rs. 250. The cost of a pair of bullocks was about Rs. 400 in 1956.

A country *ghani* crushes about 120 lbs. of shelled groundnut and produces about 30 lbs. oil and 85 lbs. oilcakes per day. Safflower or *Kardai*, nigarseed or *korte* or *karala* and *hemp* or *ambadi* are also crushed in these *ghanis*. Niger seeds are not largely pressed as they are sent to Bombay. Brown hemp does not yield much oil but is pressed chiefly because it yields oil cakes in large quantity. Of the total production of edible oil, 95 per cent. consists of groundnut oil and 5 per cent. other oils.

Oils from safflower, nigerseeds, groundnut, and brown hemp are used for both burning as well as for cooking. Sesame oil is used sparingly for burning and cooking but it is chiefly used by perfumers who mix it with scented oils. Mustard oil which is very rarely extracted is used in preserving pickles and as medicine.

Telis who do the work of extracting, sell their products directly to customers. Sometimes, they sell it to pedlars and merchants in surrounding areas.

Employment and labour.

These artisans work themselves and generally no outside labour is employed in this process. If at all external labourers are employed, each is paid one rupee per day. These artisans work for about eight months on *ghanis* in a year. In the rainy-season when the demand for edible oil is less, they work on fields to supplement their income. An artisan earns Rs. 50 per month. If he employs another person, he gets about Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per month. He has to spend one rupee on hired labour and Rs. 2 on bullocks per day.

Finance.

The artisan has to invest Rs. 250 for the purchase of a *ghani*, Rs. 400 for the purchase of bullocks and Rs. 500 to Rs. 600 for the storage of seeds. Most of them obtain oil seeds on credit on condition to return the products to the person who gives credit.

Co-operatives.

One oil-mens' co-operative society was organised at Halkarni in Gadhinglaj taluka. It had 38 members, Rs. 2,188 as share capital, Rs. 10,312 as working capital, and Rs. 28 as reserve fund, by the end of June 1956. It started its activities by introducing improved type of *Nutan Ghani*. During 1952-53 it made a profit of Rs. 1,492 on the sale of 279 maunds of oil. The society was granted a loan of Rs. 8,000 by the Village Industries Board.

Pohe and Churmure making.

Pohe and *Churmure* makers are found at Murgund, Kolhapur, Kashiwade, Walwe and Nigwe. Paddy is the main raw-material required in the industry. During days of rationing *pohe* and *churmure* makers found it difficult to obtain sufficient quantity of paddy. Now they get paddy as much as they want. It is said that in 1956, there were about 200 artisans engaged in this occupation.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Pohe and Churmure Making. Tools and equipment.

One beater (*dank*), a hearth (*bhatti*) and vessels (*kadai*) to boil paddy, etc. are required in this process. The whole set costs about Rs. 100.

Production.

A batch of three persons is able to produce 10 seers of *pohe* in a day. The work of a person working on a beater is very strenous. The beater, if he is employed, is paid Re. 1 for beating four seers of paddy or for making four seers of *pohe*. Generally no outside labour is employed in this process. Women work near the hearth.

Process of churmure making.

After boiling, paddy is heated in an iron vessel in a mixture of sand, and then dehusked into rice. The rice is further salted, heated and finally parched in three different earthen vessels for turning into *churmure*.

Process of pohe making.

The paddy is boiled and parched with sand and put into a stone mortor at a stage when it is slightly soft. It is then beaten with *dank*, a beater, which completes the process of *pohe* making.

Finance.

These artisans require Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 for stocking raw materials. Many a time they borrow this amount from local moneylenders at a rate of interest varying from nine per cent. to twelve per cent.

Marketing.

The market for *pohe* and *churmure* is generally local. These workers move about in streets in their respective villages and towns and sell their products. Some of them also maintain shops to sell their products. *Pohe* and *churmure* makers at Murgud produce *pohe* and *churmure* on a large scale and sell their produce in the Nipani market.

Co-operative Societies.

There were three *churmure* makers' societies at the end of June 1956. They had 97 members, Rs. 3,030 as share capital and Rs. 10,571 as working capital. These societies in 1956 purchased raw materials worth Rs. 52,523 and supplied to their members.

Lacquer Work Industry.

The lacquer coating industry is found only at village Patagaon in Bhudargad taluka. There were about 32 workers engaged in the occupation in 1956. They manufacture wooden cradles coated with lacquer and small household articles like butter-milk churners, small spoons and combs.

Raw Materials.

Wood of different kinds *hedari*, *shevari*, shellac and pigments constitute the main raw materials in this industry. Generally local wood is purchased for cradle-making. Sometimes wood from nearby forest is also used by paying the necessary taxes. Dyes, pigments, and shellac are brought from Kolhapur.

Patasi, navalya, tasani, randha, compas, lac, zinc-powder, different-colours, polish-paper, kevada-leaves, gadas, patti (iron), *kaman*, are the main tools required in the process.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Lacquer Work Industry. *Tools and equipment.*

Production.

The total production of cradles is about 60 a week. Two workers are able to make one cradle of 2½′ × 1½′ × ¾′ size. The cost of a cradle is Rs. 4-10-0 including labour charges of two workers. It is sold at Rs. 5.

Marketing.

These artisans sell their products at nearby places, like Nipani, Sangli and Ajra through *Savkars*. Sometimes they sell their products themselves.

Employment and Labour.

Lacquer working is a subsidiary occupation of carpenters. Generally no outside labour is employed in it. The average monthly income of a family engaged in this occupation is about Rs. 40 to Rs. 50. No females are working in this industry.

Finance.

These artisans require capital investment for the purchase of tools, equipment and raw-materials. In addition to this they have also to invest on articles which are produced but not sold in the rainy-reason due to lack of transport facilities. The total capital investment each artisan requires is about Rs. 300. These artisans are very poor and they obtain this amount from local money-lenders at high rates of interest.

Co-operatives.

There was one co-operative society of lacquer workers at Patagaon in 1952-53. It had 30 members, and Rs. 570 as share capital at the end of 1952-53. Government had sanctioned a loan of Rs. 2,000 to the society for the purchase of tools and implements. The society did not take advantage of it till 1952-53.

Bamboo Working.

Buruds and *Korvis* are the two communities engaged in this occupation. *Korvis* make big containers—*Kanagi*—for storing grains. *Buruds* make baskets, winnowing fans, mats, winnowing trays and chairs from split-bamboo strips. The main centres of this industry are Kolhapur, Kagal, Ichalkaranji and Vadagaon. In all about 1,090 artisans are engaged in the industry.

Raw Materials.

Bamboos as the main raw material are necessary in this craft. They are brought in cart loads from places like Bhangaon, Farale and the region round about Amba Ghat in Konkan and also from western parts of the district. A *Bamboo* of medium size is sold at between six annas and ten annas. Because of the high price of *bamboos* many *Buruds* purchase mats from South Malbar and sell them in the district.

Tools and Equipment.

Tools which are necessary for making these articles consist of sickle (*koyata*), knife, wooden blocks, chisel etc. The cost of the whole set is between Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. Knives are said to last for about two years. The life of a sickle is between 40 to 50 years.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Bamboo Working. *Production.*

Baskets, sifters—*gholana*, grain containers—*kanagi*, and mats are generally produced by these artisans. A mat of 4½′ × 10½′ is prepared by two persons in a day. The bark of these *bamboos* from which a mat is made is used for making baskets. Ten baskets can be made from the bark of two bamboos.

The cost of production of a mat of 4½′ × 10½′ size is Rs. 3 including labour charges. It is sold at Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3. On the whole an artisan who makes the mat does not lose, as he makes ten baskets from the bark of the bamboos used for making it. Each basket is sold at a price varying from six annas to eight annas.

Employment and Labour.

This work of making baskets, mats etc. is being done by *Burud* and *Korvi* families and no outside labour is employed by them in this craft. The average earning of a *Burud* family varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 per month. In the rainy season these artisans work on fields to supplement their income.

They store 100 to 200 bamboos for working in the rainy season. They have thus to invest Rs. 75 to Rs. 200. This amount is usually borrowed.

Bidi-Making.

The district has 4·9 per cent. of the gross-cropped area under tobacco. Though it produces tobacco in abundance bidi-making in which tobacco is mainly used, is a subsidiary industry. There are some *bidi karkandars* at Kolhapur, Jaisingpur and Ichalkaranji. There were about 40 bidi-making concerns in Kolhapur city, but in a majority of them it was only a side-business. There were seven establishments exclusively engaged in making bidis and about 253 persons were engaged in them in 1947 in the city. The total number of persons exclusively engaged in this trade was about 450 in 1956.

Raw Materials.

Dried *tembhurni, kuda,* or *kudchi* leaves, tobacco and thread comprise the raw materials in this industry. *Temburni* leaves are brought from Nagpur, Gondia and Sagar. The western parts of the district use *kudchi* leaves which are brought from Ratnagiri district. Tobacco is purchased from local dealers who bring it from Akola and Nipani. Tobacco of inferior variety is brought from Pandharpur, Pattankudi and Guntur. Thread is purchased locally.

Tools and Equipment.

A pair of scissors and a furnace with six to eight metal trays are the tools required in this industry.

Production.

An average bidi worker produces 500 to 800 bidies per day, and a skilled worker from 1,000 to 1,500 per day.

The cost of production of 1,000 bidies comes to about Rs. 4-4-0 including charges for 30 *tolas* of tobacco, wages of the worker and other charges. The price of 1,000 bidies is about

Rs. 5-0-0 to Rs. 6-0-0. The total production of bidies in the district is about 10 lakhs per day. Generally these artisans produce bidies of one variety. The whole of it is consumed on the district.

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Bidi-making. *Production.*

Process of bidi-making.

Process of bidi-making.—*Temburni* or *kudchi* leaves are soaked in water for one night to make them soft. The leaf after becoming soft is cut into a size of 2½" x 1¼". The required quantity of tobacco is put at one end of it and it is wrapped with the help of both the hands. Bundles of 25 or 50 bidies are made and put in a tray of tin sheets and are slightly heated.

Employment and Labour.

Those who work exclusively in this industry are paid on piece-rate. Each worker is paid from Rs. 1-2-0 to Rs. 2 per day. Female labour is commonly employed in this industry. They are paid Rs. 1-2-0 each per day. Rainy season is a slack season when the sale of bidies is reduced.

Finance.

A majority of the bidi concerns in the district are owned by rich men. They do not find any difficulty in acquiring capital investment. An artisan with Rs. 100 as an investment is able to start this occupation on a small scale.

Co-operatives.

Efforts were made to organise co-operative societies of these artisans, but they did not prove to be successful.

Snuff Manufacturing.

Snuff manufacturing is found at two places namely Halkarni and Nandani. Snuff manufactured at Halkarni is famous in the whole district. There are in all eleven snuff manufacturers at Halkarni and four at Nandani. There are about 50 workers engaged in this industry.

Raw Materials.

Tobacco of different qualities, *dura* and *dhas* are used in the process of snuff manufacturing. It is purchased in the local market. Halkarni manufacturers consume about 21,000 lbs. air-cured tobacco in snuff manufacturing in three months. The price of tobacco varies from Rs 40 to Rs. 60 for 31 lbs. in accordance with the quality of tobacco. The concerns at Hupari purchase raw materials on credit.

Tools and Equipment.

Mortar (*danga*), *khalbhatta*, a stone grinder (*jate*) and a sieve are mainly used in this process.

Production.

Halkarni centre alone produces 20,000 lbs. of snuff and the whole district about 30,000 lbs. per year.

Process of Snuff making.—A required quantity of tobacco is taken and water mixed with *gul*, lime and *sonakhar* (impure form of carbonate) is sprinkled over it. This mixture is kept in a basket till it gets a specific taste, smell and colour. It is

CHAPTER 6. Industries. SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES. Snuff Manufacturing. *Production.*

then ground in a stone-grinder and is seived through cloth. Thus tobacco reduced to fine powder is called snuff.

Cost of production of a unit of 12 lbs.

	Rs.	as.	p.
Wages of 2 persons at Re. 1 per head.	2	0	0
Wages of 1 person at Rs. 1-4-0 ...	1	4	0
Wages ...	3	4	0
Cost of 12 lbs. of tobacco at Re. 0-8-0 per lb.	6	0	0
Excise duty at 6 annas per lb. ...	4	8	0
Miscellaneous	0	4	0
	14	0	0

Employment and Labour.

Workers are paid low wages in this industry. Male workers get twelve annas to one Rupee per day and female worker eight annas. These workers are asked to work over-time without any additional wages. Male workers do *vastragal* or sieving. Grinding work is done by women. Generally use of *khalabatta* is not made but when made, male workers are entrusted with this work. They work from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. with an interval of about 1½ hours. The industry is seasonal. They cannot do this work in the rainy season.

Marketing.

The snuff manufacturers move from place to place to sell their products. The famous snuff produced at Halkarni is sent to Kolhapur and other places.

III—LABOUR ORGANIZATION.

HISTORY OF TRADE UNION MOVEMENT.

With a vast area of fertile land and six rivers flowing within its boundaries, Kolhapur is mainly a land of agriculture. The district is not industrially advanced even though the former State authorities granted many facilities by way of tax exemptions, granting cheap land etc. to foster industrial development in the region. The number of persons engaged in organised industries was hardly 5.600 in 1954. Industries which have developed, are those which consume local crops like cotton, sugarcane and groundnut. They are concentrated round about Kolhapur city and Ichalkaranji town. Organised industrial labour, therefore, is mainly concentrated in Kolhapur city and Ichalkaranji town. The earliest trade union organised in the district was the Press Workers Union at Kolhapur. It was registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926. It had 65 members on 31st March 1954. The merger of the old Kolhapur State in the Indian Union in 1949 enlarged the scope of trade union movement in the district. The number of trade unions which was four in 1945

HISTORY OF TRADE UNION MOVEMENT.

increased to nine during 1946-50 and 23 during 1951-53. There were 24 registered trade unions in the district in 1954. This number does not include one union, the registration of which was cancelled.

Members of Unions.

There were eight registered unions in 1949-50. The total number of members of six of them for which information was available was 1,743, out of whom 1,665 were males and 78 were females. In 1950-51 the number of registered trade unions was 10. The total number of members of the eight unions was 1,751, of whom 1,595 were males and 156 were females. Five unions had no female members. There were 21 registered unions in 1952-53. The total number of members of 19 unions (as membership of the other two was not available), was 3,057 out of whom 2,839 were males and 218 were females. Twelve unions had no female members. The total membership of 22 unions in 1953-54 was 2,893 of whom 2,784 were males and 109 females.

Income of Unions.

The main source of income of these unions was contributions from members, donations, interest on investments, funds and miscellaneous items. In 1949-50, the income of the six registered unions was Rs. 8,318. In 1950-51 the income of eight registered unions was Rs. 10,156. Nineteen had the income of Rs. 20,965 in 1952-53. The total income of 22 registered unions in 1953-54 was Rs. 20,212 out of which Rs. 16,674 was collected by way of contributions from members, Rs. 3,273 way of donations, and Rs. 265 by way of interest and miscellaneous sources.

Expenditure.

The main items of expenditure of these unions were salaries paid to office-bearers, expenses incurred on legal matters, compensation paid to members and expenses incurred on items like funerals and education of children of members of unions. The total expenses incurred by the six registered unions in 1949 on the items quoted above were Rs. 9,529. Eight unions spent Rs. 10,156 in 1950-51 and 19, Rs. 15,979 in 1952-53 and 22, Rs. 13,161 on the above items in 1953-54 Out of the total expenses of these unions in 1953-54, Rs. 10,160 were spent on salaries of officers of unions and on other expenses on them, Rs. 1,587 on legal expenses on trade disputes and Rs. 661 on compensation and other benefits to members and the remaining on other items.

Assets and liabilities.

The total assets of the six registered unions in 1949 were Rs 7,293 : of eight, Rs. 6,550 in 1950-51 ; of 19, Rs. 23,355 in 1952-53 and of 22, Rs. 28,397 in 1953-54. Of the total assets of 1953-54, Rs. 16,473 were kept in the form of cash at hand or in banks, Rs. 78 in the form of securities. The unpaid subscriptions which remained to be collected from members of unions amounted to Rs. 9,539 during that year. Among the existing unions in the district the Shahu Mill Kamgar Sangh had the largest assets in 1953-54.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.

HISTORY OF TRADE UNION MOVEMENT.

Assets and liabilities.

In 1949-50 five unions had an amount of Rs. 4,683 as general fund, the sixth registered union had no general fund to its credit. As regards liabilities of these six registered unions, two unions had liabilities of Rs. 312 and four had no liabilities at all.

In 1950-51, of the eight unions which supplied information seven unions had Rs. 3,603 as general fund, and one union had no general fund. As regards liabilities, four unions had liabilities of Rs. 3,014 and the other four had no liabilities. In 1952-53 the nineteen unions, which supplied information, had Rs. 18,394 as general fund. Three unions had liabilities of Rs. 9,961 and other sixteen had no liabilities. In 1953-54, twenty-two unions, which supplied information, had Rs. 18,615 as general fund. Twenty unions had no liabilities and two unions had liabilities of Rs. 9,782.

Strikes and lockouts.

During 1952-54, four workers' strikes were organised in the district, affecting two cotton textile units, one engineering concern and a bidi factory. The demand of the workers in their disputes was that they wanted an increase in their wages. These strikes involved 205 workers who lost 2,356 man-days work. Out of the four strikes, one was organised indefinitely. Workers were unsuccessful in getting their demands accepted in three strikes and they were successful in one strike. There were no lockouts during this period.

LEGISLATION.

With the passing of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 (Bombay State Act) and the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 (Central Act), which were brought into force by the Bombay State on 29th September 1947, and 1st April 1947, respectively, the relations between the industrial employees and employers have been precisely regulated. Both the laws provide for a machinery of settlement of industrial disputes either by conciliation and arbitration under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, or by conciliation and adjudication under the Industrial Disputes Act.

The following four unions were registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and represented the industries and areas as shown against them :—

Serial No.	Name of the Union.	Industry.	Area.
1	Ichalkaranji Girni Kamgar Samiti, Ichalkaranji.	Cotton Textile ..	Hatkanangle taluka.
2	Bank Employees' Union, Kolhapur.	Banking ..	Karvir taluka and Shirol taluka.
3	Kolhapur Sugar Mill Kamgar Union, Kolhapur.	Sugar ..	Karvir taluka.
4	Shahu Mill Kamgar Sangh, Kolhapur.	Cotton Textile ..	Karvir taluka.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
HISTORY OF TRADE UNION MOVEMENT.
Legislation.

During 1950-54, 23 cases from the district were referred to the Industrial Court under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, five to the Court of Industrial Tribunal and one to the Wage Board and 47 to the Labour Court. Of the twenty-three cases referred to the Industrial Court, 22 were decided or disposed off during the same period and one was kept pending. So also all the five cases referred to the Court of Industrial Tribunal and one referred to the Wage Board were decided during the same period.

Of the 33 cases referred in this district to conciliation during 1952-53 and 1954 under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, nine were regarding pay and allowances, ten regarding bonus, two regarding personnel, seven regarding other matters and five regarding leave and hours of work. Further analysis of these disputes showed that 13 were from cotton textile industry, 13 from banking and 7 from sugar industry. Out of the 33 disputes, 18 were settled, 3 failed, 8 were withdrawn or closed and 4 were pending at the end of the period.

During 1952-53 and 1954 under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, 108 cases were referred to conciliation. Of the 108 cases referred, 101 were regarding pay and allowances, one regarding bonus, 2 regarding personnel, and 4 regarding other matters. Further analysis of these disputes showed that, 13 were from cotton textile industry 7 from bidi industry, 4 each from engineering and municipalities, one from cinema industry and 79 from other industries. Out of the total cases referred, 79 disputes were settled, 16 failed, 11 were withdrawn or closed and two were pending at the end of period.

The Employees State Insurance Act, 1952, was made applicable to eight factories, covering 616 workers. Government had not started any Labour Welfare Centre in the district, till 1957.

CHAPTER 7—FINANCE.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THIS CHAPTER ARE DESCRIBED THE VARIOUS FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS that operate in the district. The successful functioning of these institutions largely helps the progress of agriculture, trade and industry.

Lack of adequate finance has been an important factor responsible for the slow development of trade and industry in the past. The village money-lender and the indigenous banker in the rural and urban areas respectively were the only sources of supply of credit. Prohibitive rates of interests charged by them were not conducive to economic progress. With the establishment of co-operative credit societies, co-operative banks and modern joint stock banks, economy of the district is undergoing a change. Money-lenders are being gradually replaced by agricultural credit co-operative societies, while the indigenous bankers are being relegated to the background by the modern joint stock banks. At the same time, the malpractices followed by the non-institutional private agencies like money-lenders and indigenous bankers are being regulated by progressive legislation. Besides, the district is now being served by insurance companies, post office savings banks, public limited and private limited companies, which collect surplus funds from the public and mobilise them into some productive activities.

It is not possible to give a complete account of the part which each one of these agencies plays in the financial affairs of the district in the absence of necessary data. An attempt has, however, been made to estimate and evaluate their role on the basis of material that is available.

MONEY-LENDERS.

The age-old institution of money-lenders has traditionally been the main agency meeting the credit requirements of the rural sector of our economy in the past and it continues to enjoy even to-day, more or less, the same predominant position in that field inspite of vigorous efforts by Government to develop and enlarge alternative sources of credit and to control and regulate the business activities of money-lenders by various legislative measures. The enquiries undertaken and the report published thereafter in 1954 by the All-India Rural Credit Survey Committee appointed by the Reserve Bank of India

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Finance.

MONEY-LENDERS.

in 1951 reveals certain surprising facts. It records that about 93 per cent. of the total borrowings of cultivators is financed by non-institutional or private agencies of which the most important are money-lenders who account for nearly 70 per cent. In contrast to this, " the combined contribution of Government and the co-operatives was about six per cent. of the total (each accounting for about three per cent). As for commercial banks, one per cent. represented the insignificant part played by them in the direct financing of the cultivator ".[1] This is confirmed by the findings of Dr. P. C. Patil who in his work, " Regional Survey of Economic Resources, Kolhapur " published in 1950, reveals that about 93 per cent. of the farm debt was financed by money-lenders (including *gul* brokers) and only 4·37 per cent. by co-operative societies, including the State Co-operative Bank. Although co-operative movement has registered good progress in Kolhapur district, it has not significantly affected the predominant position of money-lenders.

Such a predominant position of the money-lenders would have meant no harm to our rural economy had they refrained from indulging in unhealthy practices. The Agricultural Finance Sub-Committee appointed by the Government of India under the chairmanship of Shri D. R. Gadgil, in its report of 1945 noted (page 59) ; " While it is true that the money-lender is the most important constituent of the agricultural credit machinery of the country, it is not possible to justify many of his practices and the charges he makes for his services. Very often these charges are out of all proportion the risk involved in the business and constitute only exploitation of the helplessness, ignorance and the necessity of the borrower. Nor is the agricultural economy of the country in a position to bear the strain of his extortion. The credit dispensed by him instead of contributing to the agricultural prosperity of the country serves as a serious drag on it." But inspite of all these evil practices which are known to all including the debtors, money-lenders still continue to enjoy almost the same predominant position in our rural economy as in the past. This is due to the fact that the methods employed by money-lender in dealing with the debtors, though objectionable in other ways, have the advantage of being extremely flexible. He is able to make funds available promptly and for all purposes and sometimes without any kind of legal formalities. This is exactly what the Government or co-operative credit agencies have not been able to do. Hence the continued dominance of money-lenders in the rural sector.

Money-lenders in the past

The old Gazetteer of Kolhapur State published in 1886 recorded that money-lending was the chief form of investment. Everybody who could save something, except perhaps State officials, took to money-lending. Thus, apart from professional money-lenders, money-lending was resorted to by some traders,

[1] All India Rural Credit Survey, Report, page 167.

Money-lenders in the past.

shop-keepers, brokers, pleaders, etc. who were able to save and lend. In the rural areas landlords, village headmen or *Patils* and a few cultivators, besides the professional money-lenders, advanced loans to those in need of them. There were also low usurers who lent small sums for short periods to the poorest borrowers at very high rates. Sometimes farmers had to borrow to meet sudden demands of the *Darbar* or the State Government for additional revenue and sometimes to meet demands of old creditors for return of their debts. The helpless farmers had to run to money-lenders, many of whom used this opportunity for exploiting them. However, debtors were protected by the State Law by which a limit of 12 years was fixed for the recovery of pawns and cash debts. The land and the dwelling of the husbandman were exempted from sale in the execution of court decrees except when they were specially mortgaged.

Besides the mortgages of landed property with or without possession, there was also in vogue the practice of service mortgage. Labourers often pledged their services to money-lenders for a period of three to ten years as the price of the loan which they raised for marriage and other social and religious observances.

The rate of interest charged by money-lenders varied from 6 per cent. to 30 per cent. depending upon the security offered, the size of the transaction and the credit of the borrower.

Classes of Money-lenders.

The situation has, however, considerably changed during the last sixty or seventy years. A comparatively small number of persons are now (1958) found to follow money-lending as the sole profession in life. Others combine with money-lending some other business. The Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee (1929-30), listed the following among indigenous credit agencies apart from indigenous bankers who were classed separately :—

(1) Money-lenders:—

(a) Village money-lenders.

(b) Town money-lenders,

(c) Land owner or agriculturist money-lenders,

(d) Goldsmiths and dealers in ornaments who specialise in loans secured by pledge of ornaments,

(e) Moneyed persons of all classes who invest surplus funds in loans.

(2) Shroffs and other persons dealing in hundis.

(3) Merchants, commission agents and *Dalals*.

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MONEY-LENDERS.
Evil Practices of Money-lenders.

The above classification holds good even to-day except that the persons included in (1) (*e*) i.e. moneyed persons with surplus funds who used to lend money occasionally find it difficult to do so now under the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946, which requires them to get licences to carry on the business of money-lending.

This legislation was considered necessary in order to put an end to certain objectionable practices followed by money-lenders. These resulted from a more or less complete monopoly enjoyed by money-lenders in the rural economy. The practices included the following* :—

" (*a*) demand for advance interest ;

(*b*) demand for a present for doing business, known as *girah kholai* (purse-opening) ;

(*c*) taking of thumb impression on a blank paper with a view to inserting any arbitrary amount at a later date if the debtor became irregular in payment of interest ;

(*d*) general manipulation of the account to the disadvantage of the debtor ;

(*e*) insertion in written documents of sums considerably in excess of the money actually lent ; and

(*f*) taking of conditional sale deeds in order to provide against possible evasion of payment by the debtor."

In Kolhapur, too, a large section of money-lenders was found indulging in certain questionable practices, thereby exploiting the helplessness of the villagers. In some cases it was found that the debtors themselves colluded with the creditors in concealing certain evil practices followed by the latter. In the absence of any other agency which could provide loan finance to them as easily and promptly, for all purposes, productive or unproductive and without any legal formalities, the needy borrowers had no other alternative except to borrow from the money-lender who always had an upper hand. The need of the debtor and the greed of the creditor thus acted to accentuate, the acuteness of the problem.

In these circumstances it was found necessary to regulate the business of money-lenders by appropriate legislative measures so as to curtail their powers till they were replaced by organised credit agencies. It was with this purpose in view that the Bombay Money-lenders' Act was formulated.

The Bombay Money-lenders' Act (XXXI of 1946)

This Act came into force in other parts of the State from November 1947 and was made effective in Kolhapur district from May 1949. The Act requires all persons and institutions, with the exception of those expressly excluded by the Act, (e.g. scheduled Joint Stock Banks, Co-operative Societies, etc.)

*The Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee, 1931, Majority Report, page 77.

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The Bombay Money-lenders' Act (XXXI of 1946)

to give every year in any recognized language, prescribed returns to their borrower's and to the State. The Act prescribes maximum rates of interest that can be charged by money-lenders on secured and unsecured loans. It also entitles Government to alter the maximum rates of interest from time to time.

Of particular significance are sections 32(i) and (ii) and 33(i). Section 32(i) lays down that no money-lender shall take any promissory note, acknowledgement, bond or other writing which does not state the actual amount of the loan, or which states such amount wrongly, or execute any instrument in which blanks are left to be filled after execution. The penalty for violation of these provisions is embodied in sub-section (2) of the same section which lays down that whoever is convicted of contravening them shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 1,000 or/and with simple or rigorous imprisonment which may extend to six months. Section 33(i) lays down that whoever molests or abets the molestation of a debtor for the recovery of a debt due by him to a creditor shall, on conviction, be punishable with imprisonment (simple or rigorous) which may extend to three months or with fine which may extend to Rs. 500 or with both.

Some amendments to this Act were necessitated subsequently to facilitate its stricter enforcement and to remove genuine hardships caused to money-lenders and to borrowers. The most important amendment was one that enabled Government to vary the maximum rates of interest which money-lenders may charge. By two other important amendments incorporated in the Bombay Money-lenders (Amendment) Act, 1951, non-scheduled banks were excluded from the purview of the Act and loans from landlords to tenants for financing crops, or seasonal finance of not more than Rs. 50 per acre of land held by tenants were exempted from the provisions of the Act except for the purposes of section 23 and 25 thereof. It was also decided to exempt loans to licensed money-lenders from the provisions of the Act, so as to facilitate the flow of capital from big financiers to persons actually engaged in money-lending business.

Two other important amendments were passed in 1954-55. The first was an amendment to section 33 by which carrying business of money-lending without a licence was made a cognizable offence. The second was the amendment to section 13A. It brought out clearly the original intention that Registrars and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders are competent to enquire into financial dealings of persons suspected to be engaged in money-lending business.

Rates of Interest.

The maximum rates of interest laid down originally were six per cent. on secured loans and nine per cent on unsecured loans. The money-lenders found these rates unremunerative. So, certain money-lenders, especially pawn-brokers, raised hue and cry against this scheme and argued that unless the rates were revised upwards most of them would find it impossible

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Rates of Interest.

to continue in their business. Government, therefore, in exercise of the powers given under section 25 of the Act raised by a notification in 1952, the maximum rates of interest on secured loans from six per cent. to nine per cent. and on unsecured loans from nine per cent. to twelve per cent. The expectation that the increase in the maximum rates of interest would result in a considerable increase in the number of licensed money-lenders was not fulfilled as can be seen from the following table :—

TABLE No. 1

LICENSED MONEY-LENDERS, KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Period.	No. of applications received by Assistant Registrars from Money-lenders for grant of licences.	No. of licences granted for the first time.	No. of licences renewed.	No. of Money-lenders holding valid licences.
1949–50 ..	8,071	8,536	...	8,046
1950–51 ..	5,676	596	4,980	5,182
1951–52 ..	4,737	971	3,605	4,552
1952–53 ..	4,089	797	3,174	3,963
1953–54 ..	3,555	676	2,829	3,505
1954–55 ..	3,161	458	2,662	3,120
1955–56 ..	2,916	376	2,503	2,882

Figures taken from the Annual Reports on the Administration of the Bombay Money-lenders' Act, 1946.

The above table shows that even after the upward revision of the rates the number of money-lenders holding valid licences has been on the decline. This may be explained by the fact that the number of persons who apply for licences to cover a few casual transactions for one year only and then do not apply for renewal of their licences, far exceeds the number of new applicants who are professional money-lenders. It seems, however that even the upward revision of rates has not satisfied money-lenders. Some of them still contend that the maximum rates of interest are not remunerative, particularly with regard to petty loans which form the bulk of their loan operations. But it should be noted that inspite of the gradual fall in the total number of licence holders, Kolhapur district has continued right from 1949 to have the largest number of licensed money-lenders as compared to those in other districts of the State. The amount of finance made available by them was also quite large.

The taluka-wise distribution of money-lenders in the district in 1955-56 was as follows :—

Name of Taluka or Mahal.	No. of licensed money-lenders.
Karvir	1,137
Ajra	49
Hatkanangale	596
Bavada	3
Shirol	135
Radhanagari	113
Shahuwadi	46
Panhala	245
Bhudargad	85
Kagal	277
Gadhinglaj	196
Total	2,882

The following table shows the amount of loans advanced by licensed money-lenders to non-traders and as far as available, to traders from 1949-50 to 1955-56 :—

TABLE No. 2.

TRANSACTIONS OF MONEY-LENDERS BETWEEN 1949 AND 1956.

Period.	Loans to traders only by		Loans to non-traders by		Total of Columns 2 and 4.	Total of Columns 3 and 5.	Total of Columns 6 and 7.
	Money-lenders not exempted under section 22.	Banks and Companies exempted under section 22.	Money-lenders not exempted under section 22.	Banks and Companies exempted under section 22.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949–1950 ..	34,52,116	2,53,78,147	1,08,75,721	17,47,604	1,43,27,837	2,71,25,751	4,14,53,588
1950–1951 ..	41,25,294	2,20,71,136	95,85,902	13,58,653	1,37,11,196	2,34,29,792	3,71,40,988
1951–1952 ..	28,43,570	2,36,69,609	1,06,28,043	38,28,676	1,34,69,613	2,74,98,285	4,09,67,898
1952–1953 ..	35,68,500	39,25,566	1,08,83,000	17,40,160	1,44,51,500	56,65,726	2,01,17,226
1953–1954 ..	32,01,881	....	1,00,58,605	....	1,32,60,486	....	1,32,60,486
1954–1955 ..	36,10,061	....	1,01,51,422	....	1,40,61,483	....	1,40,61,483
1955–1956 ..	37,76,849	....	1,05,84,606	3,375	1,43,61,455	3,375	1,43,64,830

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Finance.
MONEY-LENDERS.
Working of the Act.

The figures given in the above table about loans advanced by money-lenders need not be taken as fully indicative of the business of the money-lenders in the district. Under the scheme of the Act loans extended to traders are exempted from the provisions of the Act except for the purposes of sections 23 and 25. Money-lenders were, therefore, tempted to take an undue advantage of this concession. The Registrar General in his Administration Report for the year 1952-53 remarked as follows :—

"A number of money-lenders are found to be advancing loans to persons who really are not traders, as defined in the Act. Transactions which in pith and substance are nothing but loans and promissory notes, are made to assume the garb of advances and hundis. It is also noticed that a number of persons who were in the past doing money-lending business have now resorted to purchase and sale business which in essence are money-lending transactions."

Since September, 1946, the Kolhapur Money-lenders Act, 1946, promulgated by the then Kolhapur State Government was in force in the district. With the merger of the State in 1949, steps were taken to apply the Bombay Money-lenders Act to this area and it was made applicable in 1949.

A large number of money-lenders in the district are commission agents or *dalals* who advance loans to agriculturists on the security of their agricultural products. As noted by the Registrar General of Money-lenders in his report for the year 1950-51 the commission agents affiliated to the Shahupuri Merchants' Association advanced, annually, loans to the extent of one crore rupees to agriculturists for production of *gur*. This was far in excess of the total finance made available by co-operative societies which amounted to Rs. 24·53 lakhs and Rs. 53·99 lakhs during the years 1949-50 and 1950-51 respectively. It is found, that quite a large number of these commission agents did not obtain licences on the plea that they did not charge any interest.

As *gur* is the chief agricultural product of the district, money-lenders advance loans to agriculturists usually on the security of *gur*. The general mode of repayment of loans is in kind i.e. in *gur*. This being so, it is difficult to find out precisely the rate of interest charged by them.

Our enquiries (in 1957) show that most of the clients of village money-lenders are agriculturists. On the other hand, town money-lenders have a variety of clients which include labourers, small employees and petty retailers. The amount of loan lent to an individual debtor varies between Rs. 100 and Rs. 8,000. The demand for loans was for varied purposes, the chief among them being agricultural improvement. Such loans to agriculturists were generally given for a period of one year. The loans advanced to salaried persons and labourers were for shorter terms.

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Finance.

MONEY-LENDERS.

Working of the Act.

Money-lenders in the district were also engaged in certain other activities, such as retail shopkeeping, commission agency, etc. They generally did not accept deposits from the public. They carried on their business of money-lending on their own capital, supplemented by their earnings from other businesses which they usually pursue. Some money-lenders in towns who were also businessmen or commission agents had access to the resources of the organised banks—both joint stock and co-operative.

The importance of money-lenders in the rural credit structure is expected gradually to diminish in future, thanks to the legislation that has been and may be passed for regulating their activities. It is also realised that strengthening of institutional agencies to supply the necessary credit to rural population is equally necessary. That alone will remove the necessity of having to go to the money-lender for obtaining the necessary finances.

AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT.

Agriculturists always resented the exploitative practices followed by money-lenders and their resentment found a violent expression as far back as 1875 in what came to be known as the Deccan Riots. It was these riots which led to the passing of the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act of 1879. This Act which was intended to reduce the aggregate indebtedness of the farmers and restrict the transfer of land from cultivators to money-lenders was subsequently repealed and replaced by the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XXVIII) of 1939. The scheme of this Act envisaged a compulsory scaling down of debts and subsequent arrangements for the repayment of the adjusted amounts in manageable instalments.

Under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act, 1879, the term "Agriculturist" meant not only genuine agriculturists of the cultivating class but also pseudo-agriculturists who merely owned land but did not cultivate it by themselves. As against this, the term "debtor" as defined in the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act was more definite. Under this Act, the term "debtor" meant an indebted person who is a holder of land and who is cultivating land personally. Further the income of the debtor from sources other than agriculture should not exceed 33 per cent. of his total annual income or Rs. 500 whichever is greater. Income from land got cultivated by tenants is regarded as non-agricultural income under the Act.

The Act was amended in 1945 and again in 1947 with a view to consolidating the law for the relief of agricultural debtors and for remedying certain other defects which the working of the Act had brought to light. The Debt Adjustment Boards were dissolved and the administration of the Act was entrusted to civil courts. Subsequent minor amendments were made in 1948 and 1950.

Individual debts exceeding Rs. 15,000 were kept outside the purview of this Act. According to the provisions of clause (iv) of sub-section (*2*) of section 32, the rate of interest in case of awards should not exceed six per cent., per annum *or* such less rate as may be notified in that behalf by the State Government *or* the rate agreed upon between the parties when the debt was originally incurred *or* the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debts, whichever is the lowest. Government fixed (in 1948-49) four per cent. per annum as the rate of interest for purposes of awards made under section 32(2) of the Act. In case of awards passed in favour of Land Mortgage Banks under section 33, the Banks are entitled to recover the amount due to them from the debtor together with interest at such rate as the State Government may notify. Six per cent. per annum was the rate fixed by Government for the purposes of awards made under section 33(*3*). However, this was raised to 7½ per cent. in 1953-54 by a Government Notification, dated 12th October, 1953. The Act, together with the amendments, was made applicable to Kolhapur district with effect from 1st May, 1949, after its integration with the then Bombay State.

The number of applications received by the civil courts till 30th June, 1950, was 66,944. Of these, 694 applications were later withdrawn—26 by the debtors and 668 by the creditors. Only six applications could be disposed of during the first year. The speed was, however, increased in the years that followed as indicated in the table given below :—

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AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT.

TABLE No. 3

STATEMENT SHOWING THE RESULTS ACHIEVED BY THE VARIOUS CIVIL COURTS IN THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT DURING THE PERIOD FROM 1ST MAY 1949 TO 30TH JUNE 1955 IN REGARD TO BOMBAY AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT, 1947.*

Period.	Number of applications disposed of				Amount involved in applications shown in column No. 2.				Amount by which debts are reduced.	Awards taken by Land Mortgage Banks.	
	On preliminary issues.	By adjudicating debtors as insolvents.	By passing awards.	For other reasons.	On preliminary issues.	By adjudicating debtors as insolvents.	By passing awards.	For other reasons.		Number.	Amount.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.
May 1949–June 1950.	6	...	....	2,849	5,417	....	....	17,46,973	326	....	....
July 1950–June 1951.	1,033	14	1,556	9,285	7,83,910	7,762	6,60,976	65,31,188	21,14,213	2	1,075
July 1951–June 1952.	3,287	7	4,860	19,076	27,43,922	2,650	23,66,734	1,25,17,531	22,99,870	2	390
July 1952–June 1953.	4,225	13	6,125	12,384	43,29,263	8,997	25,76,000	71,51,660	13,84,475	....	....
July 1953–June 1954.	1,668	22	3,977	7,205	25,89,649	13,962	29,36,968	55,53,254	10,26,604	....	....
July 1954–June 1955.	485	9	1,356	1,486	6,32,534	1,791	12,27,120	10,88,880	5.04,430	....	....
July 1955–June 1956.	187	13	719	352	3,41,535	8,537	8,15,776	4,48,939	4,14,528	....	....
Total ..	10,891	78	18,593	52,637	1,14,16,230	43,699	1,06,12,583	3,50,38,425	77,44,446	4	1,465
GRAND TOTAL ..			82,189				5,71,10,937				

*Explanations to some of the headings in the above table:

Preliminary Issues.—These are whether the person is a debtor within the meaning of the Act, and whether the amount of debt involved is less than Rs. 15,000.

Awards taken by Land Mortgage Banks.—In case the adjusted debt of a debtor exceeds half the value of his immovable property and his creditors agree to scale it down further and the debtor fails to pay the debts even then, the court will send a scheme to a local land mortgage bank embodying the terms of the award for its acceptance and payment to the creditors. The bank is entitled to recover the amount specified in the award from the adjusted debtor in such instalments as the court may fix

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The table given above shows that the total number of applications disposed of by various civil courts since 1st May, 1949, to 30th June, 1956, was 82,189 and the total amount involved in these applications was Rs. 5,71,10,937. During the same period debts were reduced by Rs. 77,44,446.

Effects of debt relief and money-lending legislation on the credit machinery.

Debt relief and money-lending legislation was viewed with alarm by private money-lenders. They took a gloomy view of their risks and hesitated in providing loan facilities to agriculturists. As a result some agriculturists found it difficult to secure credit facilities. Particularly affected were those debtors whose cases were either pending before the courts or adjusted by the awards of the courts according to the provisions of the Act. The very process of adjustment involved so many restrictions on the alienability of their property that no lending agencies were favourably disposed towards them. Meanwhile, they had to raise crops, and before that raise money for the crops.[1]

CROP FINANCE.

Vacuum was thus created in the rural credit structure. Government took a serious view of the situation and instituted the system of crop or seasonal finance. The principal agencies which have been recognised for grant of crop or seasonal finance are the following:—

(1) Co-operative Societies;

(2) Revenue Department (Tagavi Loans);

(3) Grain Depots;

(4) Persons authorised under section 54 of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act 1947.

As far as possible, crop or seasonal finance is advanced through co-operative societies to persons who are parties to the proceedings or awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act. Advances made through agencies other than co-operatives are not, therefore, very large. The advances are secured by crops grown by them. They are essentially short term in character and their chief object is to finance at reasonable rates of interest, agricultural operations connected with the raising of crops. Societies have been advised to keep a watch over the crops and to effect prompt recoveries. Inspite of this provision, there have been defaults in many cases.

The following table shows the position as regards advances of crop or seasonal finance through the co-operative societies in Kolhapur district in the years 1949-50 to 1955-56:—

[1] Vide "All India Rural Credit Survey Committee Report, Volume II, 1954, page 194."

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CROP FINANCE.

TABLE No. 4.

STATEMENT SHOWING ADVANCES OF CROP OR SEASONAL FINANCE THROUGH CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES DURING THE YEARS 1949-50 TO 1955-56.

Year.	No. of applications received.	Amount of finance applied for.	Amount advanced.	Amount recovered.	Amount outstanding at the end of the year.	Amount of overdues.		Amount of government guarantee.
						Authorised.	Unauthorised.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949–50 ..	2,378	6,29,359	1,76,161	....	1,71,161	1,71,161	....	....
1950–51 ..	4,505	17,31,419	8,89,498	1,49,781	9,13,878	7,28,827	1,85,051	....
1951–52 ..	4,985	22,66,720	6,00,815	3,65,354	5,82,595	24,402	5,58,193	....
1952–53 ..	10,079	19,93,064	8,58,445	12,63,653	4,36,043	2,40,257	1,95,786	....
1953–54 ..	4,262	33,69,657	8,36,205	7,47,346	5,24,902	....	67,230	....
1954–55 ..	13,719	N. A.	10,68,711	8,09,315	7,84,297	57,827	5,[illegible]3,485	967
1955–56 ..	12,540	N. A.	9,98,868	8,04,005	8,79,160	94,702	3,63,770	....

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Finance.
CROP FINANCE.

The table indicates that co-operative societies have not been able to meet fully the requirements of the agriculturists. The amount actually advanced always fell short of the amount applied for. The state of recoveries was unsatisfactory throughout as is evidenced by the increasing amounts of outstandings and overdues at the end of every year from 1949-50 to 1955-56. The table also reveals the fact that more and more people have begun to avail themselves of this kind of financial assistance. In 1949-50, for example, only 2,378 agriculturists had applied for crop finance and the amount advanced to them was Rs. 1,76,161. As against this in 1955-56 as many as 12,540 had applied and they were assisted to the tune of Rs. 9,98,868. This clearly indicates the increasingly greater role played by co-operative societies in matters of crop finance during recent years.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.

These consists of (1) Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies; (2) Multi-purpose Societies; (3) Primary Land Mortgage Banks; (4) Non-agricultural Credit Societies and (5) District Central Co-operative Banks.

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.
Constitution.

Any ten persons can apply for the registration of a rural society. The maximum strength of a society does not ordinarily exceed a thousand. The area of operation of a society is, as far as possible, restricted to a village. Hamlets and small villages for which separate societies are not feasible can be included in the jurisdiction of a society in the neighbouring village. Membership is open to every resident of that area, subject to the condition that he satisfies the requirements laid down in the bye-laws of the society. The liability of a member used to be generally speaking, unlimited.

The societies raise the necessary funds through (i) issue of shares, (ii) acceptance of fixed and savings deposits from their members and non-members, and (iii) loans from the Central Financing Agencies in the district. The last one, namely, loans from the Central Financing Agencies constitute the main source of funds. These loans are both short-term and medium-term loans and carry 4½ per cent. rate of interest per annum.

Nature of loans.

These societies provide short-term and intermediate-term finance to agriculturists. Most of the loans are granted mainly for productive purposes and seldom for non-productive ones. Usually they are granted for a period of less than a year and in a few cases for a longer period. Short-term loans are generally advanced for the purposes of seasonal agricultural requirements and current farm operations, whereas the medium term credit is granted for the purchase of oil engines and other implements, purchase of bullocks, digging of wells etc.

The limit upto which a member can borrow is fixed at ten times the amount of shares standing at his credit in the society. Loans are given mostly on personal security of the borrower and

CHAPTER 7. Finance. CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS. Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies. *Nature of loans.*

two members. The society may also take mortgage of immovable property or crops as collateral security. The general practice is to give loans in cash. However, they are given in kind where the purpose of the loan permits and where there exists a suitable organization.

Rate of interest.

The rate of interest charged by the societies varies according to their financial position and on the rate at which they borrow from other financial agencies. However, Government has helped societies to lower it by giving subsidies to meet their expenses.

Members, Membership and Working Capital.

In 1950-51 there were 384 societies in Kolhapur district with a membership of 39,089 and a working capital of Rs. 36,24,211. In 1955-56 there were 690 societies with a membership of 88,752 and a working capital of Rs. 1,44,57,034.

The following tables show the working of agricultural co-operative credit societies (limited and unlimited) in Kolhapur district for the years 1950-51 to 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 5.

Operations of Agricultural Credit Societies (Limited).

Year.	Total No. of societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to individuals.	Loans due at the end of the year by individuals.	Of which over-due.	Loans held at the end of the year from	
						Provincial or Central Banks.	Government.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	115	15,152	19.41,978	11,57,114	78,720	2,97,805	....
1951-52 ..	112	14,682	19.13,365	12,05,809	3,18,658	3,56,704	....
1952-53 ..	103	16,753	19,73,232	14,62.278	3,64,041	4,02,641	52
1953-54 ..	104	15,296	20,08,612	18,42,066	3,78,805	7,02,205	....
1954-55 ..	104	18,483	19,65,205	20.78,148	7,11,577	9,26,056	3,725
1955-56 ..	106	18,916	26.47,324	25,66.904	7.00,641	13,24,591	3,725

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CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.
Members, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Year.	Deposits held at the end of the year from			Share Capital paid up.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profits (+) or loss (—) for the year.	Most usual rate of interest	
	Members.	Non-members	Societies.						On borrowings.	On lendings.
1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1950–51 ..	6,32,483	32,783	13,201	5,47,263	45,310	21,281	15,90,156	+51,098 —1,709	1 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1951–52 ..	5,90,575	41,778	1,182	6,26,002	61,377	52,689	17,30,307	+39,471 —5,557	1 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1952–53 ..	6,96,538	72,639	3,868	7,04,859	1,22,035	78,439	20,80,471	+50,722 —2,077	1 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1953–54 ..	4,09,101	1,40,338	4,818	8,22,903	1,40,451	64,541	22,84,357	+42,247 —7,860	2 to 4	$7\frac{13}{16}$
1954–55 ..	4,34,967	87,668	3,648	8,96,867	2,36,659	69,440	26,59,030	+47,868 —8,910	2 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1955–56 ..	4,43,031	87,766	5,242	9,95,064	1,96,279	72,509	31,26,267	+68,749 —2,747	2 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$

TABLE No. 6.

Operations of Agricultural Credit Societies (Unlimited).

Year.	Total No. of societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to individuals.	Loans due at the end of the year by individuals.	Of which overdue.	Loans held at the end of the year from: Provincial or Central Banks.	Loans held at the end of the year from: Government.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	364	39,089	38,04,421	27,22,476	2,86,143	17,82,563	394
1951-52 ..	401	43,286	33,72,909	31,67,588	7,53,108	18,10,547	205
1952-53 ..	390	45,327	39,41,275	38,86,535	10,02,714	21,93,530	673
1953-54 ..	418	48,550	53,66,222	55,69,831	16,35,106	36,29,562	4,000
1954-55 ..	448	54,489	65,77,832	74,08,926	24,63,541	50,87,889	64,260
1955-56	447	57,124	98,34,464	98,02,311	24,67,989	71,68,412	64,921

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Finance.
Co-operative Societies and Banks.
Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.
Members, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 6—*contd.*

Year.	Deposits held at the end of the year from			Share Capital paid up.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profits (+) or loss (—) for the year.	Most usual rate of interest	
	Members.	Non-members	Societies.						On borrowings.	On lendings.
1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1950–51 ..	3,09,723	2,42,331	17,162	7,45,672	3,67,085	69,281	36,24,211	+76,243 —4,165	4	$6\frac{1}{4}$
1951–52 ..	4,30,587	2,57,476	15,722	10,44,828	4,01,639	1,63,237	41,24,441	+65,418 —15,560	1 to 5	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1952–53 ..	3,27,817	2,55,260	8,515	13,52,500	4,09,336	1,35,272	46,82,903	+83,653 —14,026	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{13}{16}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1953–54 ..	3,20,850	2,73,039	7,358	17,50,843	4,38,733	1,41,162	65,74,556	+77,269 —14,823	2 to 4	$7\frac{13}{16}$
1954–55 ..	3,40,689	2,61,547	23,838	22,25,543	5,02,640	1,38,968	86,45,374	+1,04,833 —29,869	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{13}{16}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1955–56 ..	3,68,893	2,87,051	9,022	24,99,770	5,58,178	1,31,761	1,10,88,017	+2,05,752 —18,746	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{13}{16}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.
Co-operative Societies and Banks.
Multi-purpose Societies.

These societies mark a further stage of evolution of agricultural credit societies. These societies are also essentially credit societies but their objects are wider in so far as they combine marketing of agricultural produce with the provision of short-term credit.

Organization of these societies was recommended in the joint report submitted in 1939 by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies and Shri V. L. Mehta. They further suggested that where market facilities are available, multi-purpose societies should be registered with the object of supplying normal cultivation needs of its members, who, in their turn were to execute an agreement binding themselves to bring all marketable produce for sale to the society.

A multi-purpose-society undertakes business of a more varied and responsible nature than an agricultural credit society. Besides supplying short-term and intermediate-term finance, it aims at supplying such agricultural requisites as seeds, manures, fodder and arranging for joint sale of members' produce.

Government aid.

Government has authorised the Registrar of Co-operative Societies to sanction loans at 4 per cent. to a multi-purpose society undertaking construction of a godown for storing agricultural produce and other requisites. The amount of loans should not exceed two-thirds of the cost of construction, subject to a maximum of Rs. 2,000. A loan exceeding this amount may be granted with the prior permission of Government. In the year 1957-58, two societies received Rs. 15,000 as loans and Rs. 5,000 as subsidies for construction of godowns. Realising the importance of efficient and trained staff, Government has undertaken to give grants to the newly started multi-purpose societies and to newly opened branches of the existing sales societies for meeting management expenses. Government contributed Rs. 3,14,900 to 33 societies and 37 societies were given subsidies amounting to Rs. 22 200 in 1957-58 for meeting managerial expenses.

The figures about the working of multi-purpose societies are included in the foregoing tables which show the working of agricultural co-operative credit societies.

Out of a total of 1,079 villages in the Kolhapur district as many as 825 villages were under the co-operative fold by June 1958 i.e. nearly 76 per cent. of the villages were covered by the agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies. The total rural population of the district was 10,31,000 and the total membership of all the agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies was 1,06,000 as on 30th June 1958. Assuming that one member represents a family of five persons on an average, the total rural population under the co-operative fold came to 5,30,000. On percentage basis this works out to be 52 per cent.

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Finance.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.

Primary Land Mortgage Banks.

Neither co-operative societies nor commercial banks can provide funds for the cultivator's long-term requirements such as purchase of implements, improvement of land, repayment of old debts contracted by him or by his ancestors. Co-operative societies, with their limited resources cannot afford to lock-up their funds for a long period. Moreover, long-term lending is a specialised business requiring the services of expert valuers of landed property. Land Mortgage Banks are specially organized and equipped to perform the essential function of providing long-term credit to the cultivator on the security of land.

There was no land mortgage bank in the district till 1957. The need for having such a bank is, however, keenly felt and it is realised that the progress of co-operative movement will be further accelerated after its formation.

Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.

These are mostly urban societies whose members are traders, artisans, factory workers etc. residing in towns. These societies include urban banks, salary earners' societies etc.

Constitution.

The area of operation is restricted to a town or its part or even a department of any institution private or Government. Membership is open to all persons residing within the area of operation. The liability of members is limited. A person cannot be a member of more than one society without prior sanction of the Registrar or the Assistant Registrar.

Funds.

Capital is raised by issuing shares, accepting deposits—current, savings and fixed—and by borrowing from the central financing agency. Borrowing from outside is limited to eight times the paid-up share capital plus the accumulated reserves and building fund *minus* the accumulated losses.

Functions.

The main function of such societies is to advance loans to members either on personal security or on mortgage of property or on the security of valuables pledged. Cash credits are allowed and overdrafts sanctioned on any of these securities. These societies and more particularly the urban co-operative banks also carry on modern banking operations.

Number, Membership and Working Capital.

In 1950-51 there were 43 societies in Kolhapur district with a membership of 21.661 and working capital of Rs. 51.28,259. By 1955-56 the number of societies rose to 47, membership to 26,788 and working capital to Rs. 86,87,646.

The following tables show the working of these societies during 1950-51 and 1955-56:—

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.
Number, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. [illegible]

OPERATIONS OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (LIMITED).

Year.	Total No. of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to Individuals.	Loans due at the end of the year by Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Loans held at the end of the year from: Provincial or Central Banks.	Loans held at the end of the year from: Government.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	43	21,661	1,01,07,901	39,27,563	5,08,841	1,79,809	....
1951-52 ..	43	23,346	84,54,467	35,19,108	6,80,511	1,01,376	....
1952-53 ..	44	22,985	95,48,184	43,40,587	10,06,549	59,266	....
1953-54 ..	46	26,241	1,06,12,744	46,03,335	9,99,896	36,482	....
1954-55 ..	46	26,653	91,24,404	44,89,945	10,97,287	38,356	....
1955-56 ..	47	26,788	1,41,27,582	48,21,072	11,07,889	11,771	....

CHAPTER 7.
Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.
Number, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 7—*contd.*

Year.	Deposits held at the end of the year from			Share capital paid-up.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit (+) or loss (—) for the year.	Most usual rate of interest.	
	Members.	Non Members.	Societies.						On borrowings.	On Lendings.
1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1950-51 ..	29,34,724	6,66,660	....	7,21,462	3,64,141	2,61,463	51,28,259	+77,362 —1,375	1 to $6\frac{1}{2}$	4 to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1951-52 ..	30,18,568	3,57,902	....	7,89,770	3,97,128	3,23,759	49,88,503	+93,407 —561	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 2	$9\frac{3}{8}$
1952-53 ..	27,89,008	24,09,719	1,13,137	8,81,591	5,04,310	4,74,985	72,83,587	+86,533 —3,440	1 to 4	5 to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1953-54 ..	28,87,960	21,67,150	46,669	9,80,242	5,42,525	4,36,464	70,97,492	+98,960 —854	$2\frac{1}{4}$	6 to $7\frac{11}{16}$
1954-55 .	43,49,963	13,78,739	47,685	10,20,167	5,79,658	4,57,705	78,72,273	+99,513 —950	1 to 4	5 to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1955-56 ..	39,23,121	24,80,764	2,900	11,09,572	6,24,205	5,35,313	86,87,646	+97,997 —2,273	1 to 4	5 to $9\frac{3}{8}$

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Non-agricultural Credit Societies.
Number, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 5.

OPERATIONS OF URBAN CO-OPERATIVE BANKS.

Year.	No. of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to Individuals.	Loans due at the end of the year by Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Loans held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks.	Loans held at the end of the year from Government.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	9	14,608	95,61,529	32,62,921	4,12,221	96,748	....
1951-52 ..	9	15,876	80,58,658	29,89,292	5,61,181	42,807	....
1952-53 ..	10	17,579	91,52,031	38,25,495	8,67,482	9,722	....
1953-54 ..	10	18,454	1,02,24,635	40,75,941	8,56,168	....	....
1954-55 ..	10	18,516	87,40,973	39,39,126	9,15,263	...	....
1955-56 ..	11	18,581	1,37,11,575	41,91,166	9,28,576	..	....

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Non-agricultural Credit Societies.
Number, Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Year.	Deposits held at the end of the year from			Share capital paid-up.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit (+) or loss (−) for the year.	Most usual rate of interest.	
	Members.	Non-Members.	Societies.						On borrowings.	On Lendings.
1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1950-51 ..	25,94,690	6,57,824	....	5,87,640	95,159	2,32,414	44,63,675	+54,298	1 to 5	4 to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1951-52 ..	27,00,230	3,45,065	...	6,25,005	3,20,359	2,61,279	42,94,745	+71,649	1 to $6\frac{1}{4}$	4 to $9\frac{15}{16}$
1952-53 ..	25,42,397	23,46,085	1,06,137	7,61,475	4,08,040	4 19,400	65,93,256	+72,427	1 to 6	5 to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1953-54 ..	26,32,689	21,26,249	47 119	7,91,145	4,41,540	3,92,471	64,31,213	+84,077	1 to 5	$5\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{5}{8}$
1954-55 ..	40,07,472	13,39,766	47,119	8,17,175	4,71,089	4,13,692	71,86,313	+84,877	....	....
1955-56 ..	36,39,802	24,51,399	...	8,86,315	5,06,507	4,88,810	79,72,833	+83,798 −429	1 to 6	4 to $9\frac{3}{8}$

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.
Co-operative Societies and Banks.
District Central Co-operative Bank.

This is an agency that draws surplus funds from private investors and passes them on to primary societies which cannot raise locally all the capital required by their members. Besides. it also serves as a balancing centre accepting at a reasonable rate of interest the surplus funds of one society and transferring them to those who need them.

Constitution.

The liability of members is limited. Strictly from a theoretical point of view, such a bank ought to be a federation of primary co-operative societies. This has, however, been modified to admit private investors, who can help the movement by their contributions but cannot be members of primary societies on account of their unlimited liability.

Funds.

The funds consist of (1) share capital; (2) reserve and other funds; (3) deposits—current, savings and fixed—from societies and the general public and (4) loans or overdrafts from banks.

Share capital and reserve funds constitute a major portion of the owned capital. As the banks are based on limited liability they raise initial capital by floating shares, generally fully paid up on allotment. It is binding on societies and individuals who borrow from the central bank to be members by purchasing shares; sometimes in proportion to their borrowings.

A major portion of the working capital of the bank is derived from deposits—current, savings and fixed. It is also permitted, subject to certain restrictions, to accept deposits from local bodies, to supplement the resources obtained by means of deposits. The central bank can raise loans from the apex bank.

The Central Co-operative Bank of the district had availed itself of an additional source of funds namely, the capital raised by floating debentures. It raised Rs 97,500 by way of debentures in the former Kolhapur State in the year 1945-46. The debentures carried an interest of 3 per cent. per annum and the principal and interest thereon was guaranteed by the ex-Kolhapur State. These have. however, been duly redeemed by the Bank in the year 1956

Functions

The main function of the central bank is to finance primary societies within the area of operation. Societies are financed on the basis of the detailed statements of normal credits of members prepared by them. The statement shows, among other things, the deposits of each member with the society. the value of lands held and other details giving a comprehensive picture of his economic position. The upper limit to the loan to be granted to each individual is fixed by the central bank on the basis of this statement. Provision of nominal membership is made in bye-laws, to enable the central bank to provide finance to members of primary societies, other than urban banks and sales societies, against the security of agricultural produce and other valuables.

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
District Central Co-operative Bank.
Functions.

In places where multi-purpose societies or sale societies cannot be organized, the district central bank may undertake to make arrangements for the sale of agricultural produce, particularly of those who would come within the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, and who are allowed to become nominal members.

History.

The history of the development of the central financing agency in the district is a chequered one. Prior to the merger of the Kolhapur State with the Bombay State there were two small central financing agencies in the district, one each at Ichalkaranji and Kagal, in addition to the Kolhapur State Co-operative Bank. At the time of the merger, there were about 800 co-operative societies in the district, of which agricultural co-operatives alone numbered 548. The resources of the central financing agencies were very meagre and they mostly catered to the needs of their individual members, instead of attempting the development of their affiliated primaries. Even the Kolhapur State Co-operative Bank could finance only 144 agricultural co-operatives in the district and that too inadequately. Besides, the arrangements for supervision and inspection were totally unsatisfactory. Hence, bulk of the progressive agriculturists of the district, who were mostly sugarcane growers, as also their '*Phads*' (groups) were being financed by commission agents in the Shahupuri market.

Following the merger, the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act and the Bombay Money-lenders' Act were made applicable to the Kolhapur district. As a result of this, the commission agents considerably curtailed their lendings and credit facilities to the agriculturists in the district. Due to this, the necessity for a well-organised central financing agency for developing and financing the co-operatives, especially agricultural, was felt. The weak central financing agencies were therefore, converted into Urban Co-operative Banks and the Kolhapur State Co-operative Bank was converted into a District Central Co-operative Bank. But, even the latter did not have enough resources to adequately cater to the needs of all the co-operatives in the district. It had a share capital of Rs. 1,60,000 and its reserves amounted to Rs. 21,000. Its deposits were to the extent of Rs. 10,00,000, while its working capital, inclusive of a loan of Rs. 5,00,000 from the Kolhapur Darbar, amounted to Rs. 17,91,000 As against the estimated requirements of about Rs. 1,00,00,000 its lendings to co-operatives were less than Rs. 6,00,000. It was, therefore, decided after discussions among the Registrar, the Apex Bank and the District Central Bank to restrict the area of operations of the Central Bank to four talukas, till it strengthened itself, both financially and administratively and to entrust the remaining seven talukas to the Bombay State Co-operative Bank. To discharge its responsibility, the State Co-operative Bank had to open six branches in the district during the period 1950 to 1955 namely at Laxmipuri-Kolhapur, Shahupuri-Kolhapur, Gandhinglaj, Murgud, Gargoti and Ajra. Under the States' Reorganisation

Act, 1956, the Chandgad taluka of the Belgaum district in Mysore State was added to the Kolhapur district and one more branch of the State Co-operative Bank was opened at Chandgad early in 1957. From an humble beginning of advancing loans to the tune of Rs. 18 lakhs only, in the year 1951, the bank in the year 1958 advanced loans amounting to Rs. 153 lakhs—a phenomenal rise of eight times in the advances of the Bank.

Bombay State Co-operative Bank.

The State Co-operative Bank played a very leading part in the rehabilitation and reorganisation of the co-operative movement in the district. In particular, its role as the central financing agency catering to the credit needs of the agricultural and marketing co-operatives of the district was noteworthy. The following table (No. 9) shows the extent of finance made available by the bank, a large portion of which was advanced to agricultural and marketing co-operatives:—

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Bombay State Co-operative Bank.

TABLE No. 9

OPERATIONS OF THE BOMBAY STATE CO-OPERATIVE BANK, LTD., IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Year.	Loans advanced during the year to				Loans repaid during the year by				Normal rate of interest on	
	Individuals.		Banks and Societies.		Individuals.		Bank and Societies.		Borrowings.	Lendings.
	Number	Amount	Number	Amount	Number	Amount	Number	Amount		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		
1954-55 ..	103	13,533	302	1,10,46,174	103	8,840	302	96,56,129	3 per cent. p. a.	4½ per cent. p. a.
1955-56 ..	103	36,241	302	1,88,06,892	103	18,915	302	1,65,20,301	3 per cent. p. a.	4½ per cent. p. a.
1956-57 ..	148	52,791	330	2,87,17,852	148	32,910	330	2,53,31,963	3 per cent. p. a.	4½ per cent. p. a.
1957-58 ..	180	61,157	335	2,92,57,313	180	63,714	335	2,76,44,997	3 per cent. p. a.	4 per cent. p. a.

Bombay State Co-operative Bank.

The loans were given both in cash and in kind (manures, oil, etc.). Recoveries were also effected in cash and through the sale of jaggery. While the finance granted to agricultural co-operatives has helped them to meet the requirements of their members for raising of crops and also to improve their methods and standards of cultivation, the finance granted to the marketing co-operatives has helped them to secure the manurial and other agricultural requisites and to sell their produce. It may be observed that as a result mainly of the attempts that have been made for linking credit with marketing nearly 80 per cent. of the members' produce is marketed through the co-operative marketing agencies. The State Co-operative Bank has achieved a fair measure of success in implementing the crop loan system in the sugarcane growing areas of the district. The Bank has also assisted the members of co-operatives in constructing minor irrigation projects, ensuring permanent and adequate water supply.

In accordance with the approved policy of reorganisation and setting up of one central financing agency for each of the districts in the whole of the Bombay State, it was also decided earlier that the State Co-operative Bank should in course of time withdraw from the district in two or three stages, as and when the District Central Bank developed itself. The Kolhapur District Central Co-operative Bank was re-organised and strengthened in 1958. Its nominated Board, however, decided, in view of the Bank's resources, to take over all co-operative business other than the financing of the three sugar co-operatives, the District Purchase and Sale Union, 10 agricultural societies in Kagal taluka and co-operative societies in Radhanagari taluka. The State Co-operative Bank accordingly closed six of its branches in the district with effect from 1st February 1959 and handed over the business to the District Central Co-operative Bank. Only one branch of Laxmipuri in Kolhapur city of the State Co-operative Bank is now functioning.

District Central Co-operative Bank. *A Further Analysis.*

The Bank was established during the year 1938. In the first year of its working it had a total membership of 44 consisting of 17 societies and 27 individuals.

Membership and Working Capital

In 1950-51, the Kolhapur District Central Co-operative Bank had a membership of 1,276 individuals and 322 societies and banks and a working capital of Rs. 30,10,526. It had in 1955-56 a membership of 2,904 and a working capital of Rs. 35,68.918.

The following table shows the working of the bank for the years 1950-51 to 1955-56 :—

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Finance.
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS.
Kolhapur District Central Co-operative Bank.
Membership and Working Capital.

TABLE No. 10

OPERATIONS OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BANK, LTD.

Year.	Number of members		Loans advanced during the year to				Loans due at the end of the year by				Of which overdue.			
	Individuals	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.		Banks and Societies.		Individuals.		Banks and Societies.		Individuals.		Banks and Societies.	
			No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
				Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1950-51 ..	1,276	322	425	4,54,100	134	12,13,047	452	5,17,348	171	10,94,049	68	49,713	43	93,059
1951-52 ..	1,487	341	220	3,37,461	134	13,82,291	312	4,61,996	144	8,97,205	113	1,50,964	62	2,58,234
1952-53 ..	1,592	350	674	4,78,099	213	13,39,507	566	4,51,139	169	9,37,876	126	2,12,893	60	2,38,548
1953-54 ..	1,594	369	488	4,18,150	250	21,88,048	662	4,14,442	255	15,94,818	125	1,92,155	62	1,96,168
1954-55 ..	1,598	389	778	2,29,789	210	30,73,619	726	3,77,195	220	20,38,696	167	2,21,611	88	3,19,872
1955-56 .	1,624	393	230	1,28,453	220	25,66,049	338	2,60,273	274	20,80,505	164	2,16,696	113	5,02,037

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

Year.	Loans and Deposits from: Co-operative Banks.	Loans and Deposits from: Primary Societies.	Loans and Deposits from: Individuals and other sources.		Share Capital paid-up.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit (+) or loss (—) for the year.	Most usual rate of interest on: Borrowings	Most usual rate of interest on: Lendings
1	16	17	18		19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1950-51 ..	8,78,763	7,01,799	*G & D	5,97,500 5,53,264	2,37,355	22,101	17,244	30,10,526	+21,111	3 to 10	4 to 7
1951-52 ..	3,83,902	7,46,645	*G & D	5,97,500 4,33,586	2,59,555	27,805	21,781	24,73,716	—15,521	½ to 3½	6 to 7$\frac{13}{16}$
1952-53 ..	2,55,296	14,84,405	*G & D	4,97,500 4,42,838	2,81,440	31,996	23,864	30,20,481	+12,685	1 to 2½	6 to 7$\frac{13}{16}$
1953-54 ..	3,98,096	14,33,500	*G & D	3,97,500 7,92,171	3,07,250	35,430	25,515	33,92,593	+18,276	2 to 5	4 to 5
1954-55 ..	2,98,335	15,47,504	*G & D	2,97,500 10,16,959	3,31,390	40,316	28,279	35,63,425	+16,972 —1,775	3	4½
1955-56 ..	2,68,582	13,39,224	*G & D	1,47,500 10,02,040	3,51,[illegible]15	44,176	29,282	33,13,646	+18,636	2½	4½

*Letter *G* denotes Loans from Government and letter *D* denotes Debentures.

CHAPTER 7. Finance. CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND BANKS. Kolhapur District Central Co-operative Bank. *Membership and Working Capital.*

With the take-over of business from the Bombay State Co-operative Bank Ltd. in the beginning of the year 1959 there has been a considerable expansion in the business of the Kolhapur District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd. Prior to this it operated only in four talukas of the Kolhapur district through its branches at Hatkanangale, Ichalkaranji, Jayasingpur and Malkapur.

Small Savings Banks.

Small Savings Banks.—One of the most important State agencies for mobilisation of savings in the rural sector of our economy is the Postal Savings Bank. These banks are particularly suited to collection of savings in rural areas where banking facilities are not available. As agencies of the Government, they enjoy the confidence of the public which is very valuable in areas where banking habits are not fully developed. The savings bank activity being one of the many functions of the post offices, it can be carried on economically which is not possible in the case of other banking institutions.

There were 26 post offices in the district doing savings bank work in 1957-58. This figure includes a head office at Kolhapur and branch and sub-post offices. The total amount of bank balances in 1954-55 stood at Rs. 73,45,973. The figure for the year 1956-57 stood at Rs. 1,09,20,316. The increase clearly indicates an expansion of savings activity.

The details of its working.

Any citizen who has an amount of Rs. 2 can open a post office savings bank account at any post office which does savings bank work. The maximum limit of investment is Rs. 15,000 for an individual and Rs. 30,000 for a joint account of two individuals. All local authorities and co-operative societies and non-profit making institutions can also open accounts with these banks which are called public accounts For opening a public account there are no limits to the size of deposits which can be banked.

Interest.

Interest on individual and joint accounts is allowed at the rate of 2½ per cent. for the first Rs. 10,000 and at 2 per cent. on the balance in excess of Rs. 10,000. On public accounts interest is allowed at 2 per cent. (Interest is calculated for each calendar month). The interest earned on these investments is free of income-tax, super-tax and corporation-tax.

The National Savings Schemes.

The National Savings Scheme.—In advanced countries of the West, mobilisation of small savings is carried on as a mass movement by the State for the last 75 years. The beginning of Government mobilisation of small savings in India could be traced to World War I (1914-18) when the then Government issued postal cash certificates of 5 years', 7 years' and 10 years' duration. They were sold at a discount and repaid at par after the completion of the maturity period. They were discontinued a few years after the War.

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During World War II (1939-43), such certificates were again introduced and even after the War they have been continued in a more intensive form because small savings from a large number of people can become a substantial item in the capital resources that are required for carrying out the Nation's Five-Year Plans.

The following categories of investments have been classified as Small Savings Investment since 1957 :—

(1) Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates issued in denominations of a minimum of Rs. 5 and a maximum of Rs. 5,000 and yielding simple interest of 5·41 per cent. or compound interest of 4·25 per cent.

(2) Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued in denomination of Rs. 50 and Multiples of Rs. 50 and yielding interest of 4 per cent. per annum which is paid every year.

(3) Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates whereby accumulated savings can be invested as a lump sum and received back in monthly instalments for a period of 15 years, the rate of interest being about 4¼ per month compound.

Total subscriptions received to the Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates since the inception of the scheme in 1951 till March 1958 at the Kolhapur branch of the State Bank of India, Treasury and Sub-treasuries in the district amounted to Rs. 19,33,200 and the total amount refunded before maturity till January 1957 amounted to Rs. 42,000.

Rupees 14,000 were invested in the 15 years annuity certificates during the period 1952 to 1957 in the district of Kolhapur.

The figures of actual gross and net collections in small savings in the district for the period from April 1957, to February 1958, were Rs. 53,05,000 and Rs. 11,31,000 respectively. They were exclusive of investments in post office savings banks.

AGENCIES DOING INSURANCE BUSINESS.

With the nationalisation of life insurance business, the Life Insurance Corporation of India became the foremost and the largest single agency doing life insurance business in India. The corporation was constituted by passing the Life Insurance Corporation Act of 1956 and was officially established on 1st September. 1956, by the Government of India. From this date, all Indian insurers and provident societies as also all foreign insurers ceased to carry on life insurance business anywhere in India. However, general insurance which includes fire, marine, accident and other insurance business is kept open to private enterprise. Most of the former insurance companies and societies which used to transact all insurance business including life, have now switched over

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AGENCIES DOING INSURANCE BUSINESS.

entirely to general insurance business. Others which had life insurance as their main business have ceased to exist consequent upon the nationalisation of life insurance business.

Working of the Life Insurance Corporation in the District.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the corporation, Kolhapur district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of Satara Division of the Western Zone together with the districts of North Satara, South Satara, Sholapur, Ratnagiri and Osmanabad. The corporation has its only branch-office in the district at Kolhapur and it covers the territory of Kolhapur and Ratnagiri districts. The total business proposed and completed during September 1st, 1956 to August 31st, 1957, amounted to Rs. 80,73,800 and Rs. 52,69,750 respectively.

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

The following are the places in the district having banking offices (other than co-operative Banks) Gadhinglaj, Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, Kolhapur and Kurundwad. The table below gives the names of banks having offices in each of the above places:—

TABLE No. 11.

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT—BANKING OFFICES (OTHER THAN CO-OPERATIVE) IN 1956.

Names of Places.	Names of Banks having offices.	Nature of the office.
Gadhinglaj ..	The Belgaum Bank Ltd. ..	Branch office.
Ichalkaranji ..	The Sangli Bank Ltd.	Do.
	The New Citizen Bank of India Ltd. ..	Do.
Jaysingpur ..	The Ratnakar Bank Ltd. ..	Do.
	The Belgaum Bank Ltd.	Do.
Kolhapur ..	The New Citizen Bank of India Ltd. ..	Do.
	The Commercial Bank Ltd .	Registered office.
	The Bank of Maharashtra Ltd. .	Branch office.
	The United Commercial Bank Ltd. ..	Do.
	The State Bank of India Ltd. ..	Do.
	The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate.	Do.
	The United Western Bank Ltd. ..	Do.
	The Central Bank of India Ltd. ..	Pay office.
	The Ratnakar Bank Ltd. ..	Registered office.
	The Sangli Bank Ltd.	Branch office.
Kurundwad ..	The Ganesh Bank of Kurundwad ..	Registered office.

It would be seen from the above table that only three banks viz., The Commercial Bank Ltd., The Ratnakar Bank Ltd. and The Ganesh Bank of Kurundwad Ltd. have their registered offices in the district. The rest have them outside the district. These include the branch-office of the State Bank of India at Kolhapur.

The first bank that was established in Kolhapur district in 1913 was an urban co-operative Bank viz., the Kolhapur Urban Co-operative Society (now known as the Kolhapur Urban Co-operative Bank Ltd.). Among the banks having their registered offices in the district. the first one viz., the Ganesh Bank of Kurundwad Ltd. was established in 1920. The other two viz., the Commercial Bank and the Ratnakar Bank Ltd., were registered in 1936 and 1943 respectively. Mention may also be made of the Bank of Kolhapur, which was registered in the year 1926. The total deposits and the total loans and advances of the bank amounted to Rs. 90,54,000 and Rs. 68,21,000 respectively in the year 1951. The bank was subsequently closed down. There were other banks also which had their registered offices in the district, but most of them either went into liquidation or merged with other banks. Thus, there were eight banks in the city of Kolhapur as recorded in "Social Survey of Kolhapur city Volume II".[1]

Operations of the Joint Stock Banks.

Operations of the Joint Stock Bank.—The main business of these banks is to attract deposits—current. fixed and savings and to make available the requisite finance to their clientele. In all, there are eleven commercial banks operating in the district since 1957. They finance the storage and movement of agricultural produce in general and jaggery, the main agricultural product of a high quality, in particular. They also provide finance to various industries of the district such as textile mills, sugar mills. oil mills, engineering concerns etc. against pledge or hypothecation of liquid assets. Their insistence on tangible securities which are easily realisable is in tune with the common practice of banks as regards their advances. They are not so much concerned with the use of funds they lend as with the prospects of their repayment and the margin of profit. Their profits are mainly derived from the differences between the cost of their borrowings and the income from their advances. The Kolhapur branch of the former Imperial Bank of India which was opened in 1952 was taken over by the State Bank of India when the latter came to be established in 1955. This branch undertakes all commercial banking transactions. As an agent of the Reserve Bank of India, the branch conducts Government cash work, provides remittance facilities to banks, extends exchange and remittance facilities to the public and pays, receives, collects and remits money and securities on

[1] "Social Survey of Kolhapur City—Volume II", Shri N. V. Sovani, 1951.

CHAPTER 7. Finance. JOINT STOCKS BANKS. Operations of the Joint Stock Banks.

Government account. Kolhapur is one of the centres at which a "Pilot" scheme for the provision of credit to small scale industries is being worked by the State Bank of India in collaboration with the State Financial Corporation, Government authorities and co-operative banks. The object of the scheme is to enable a small industrial unit to obtain its entire credit requirements expeditiously by approaching one of the local agencies participating in the scheme.

The following tables giving statistical information regarding the operations of various joint stock banking offices in the district include also the figures of the branch-office of the State Bank of India at Kolhapur:—

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Finance.
JOINT STOCK BANKS.
Operations of the Joint Stock Banks.

TABLE No. 12.

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS WITH THE BANKS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1955-56.

Deposits of	Demand Deposits.											
	Rs. 10,000 and above.		Between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 500.		Below Rs. 500.		Total.	
	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
I. Manufacturing Concerns.	12	10,66,078	..	...	20	46,928	5	3,342	31	3,497	68	11,19,845
II. Trading concerns ..	55	12,12,158	77	4,84,128	252	6,41,622	312	1,56,047	4,456	1,49,201	5,152	26,43,156
III. Personal ..	31	5,88,393	42	2,24,745	134	3,00,089	127	1,08,464	1,166	96,051	1,500	13,17,742
IV. Others ..	24	10,84,593	18	1,28,870	30	75,053	24	15,670	1,404	41,729	1,500	13,45,915
Total ..	122	39,51,222	137	8,37,743	436	10,63,692	468	2,83,523	7,057	2,90,478	8,220	64,26,658

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Finance.
JOINT STOCK BANKS.
Operation of the Joint Stock Banks.

TABLE No. 13.

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS WITH THE BANKS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1955-56.

Deposits of	Savings Deposits.			
	Rs. 500 and above.		Less than Rs. 500.	
	Number.	Amounts.	Number.	Amounts.
		Rs.		Rs.
I. Business	115	2,88,331	615	53,397
II. Personal	1,645	34,34.178	8,498	5,65,583
III. Others . ..	48	2,79,436	49	2,598
Total ..	1,808	40,01,945	9,102	6,21,578

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Finance.
JOINT STOCK BANKS.
Operation of the Joint Stock Banks.

TABLE No. 14.

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS WITH THE BANKS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1955-56.

Deposits of	Time Deposits.											
	Rs. 10,000 and above.		Between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 500.		Below Rs. 500.		Total.	
	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.	No.	Amounts.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
I. Business ..	39	14,77,700	31	1,84,114	108	2,02,213	51	13,696	51	11,616	280	19,49,339
II. Personal ..	68	10,27,926	119	5,93,988	513	11,42,210	133	65,742	340	40,070	1,173	28,69,936
III. Others .	14	4,61,308	2	14,000	18	42,607	8	4,350	705	1,17,776	747	6,40,041
Total ..	121	29,66,934	152	7,92,102	639	14,47,030	192	83,788	1,096	1,69,462	2,200	54,59,316

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Finance.
Joint Stock Banks.
Operations of the Joint Stock Banks.

TABLE No. 15.

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF BANKS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO PURPOSE FOR THE YEAR 1955-56.

	No. of Accounts.	Amounts.	Percentage to total advances.
		Rs.	Per cent.
I. Industry	36	4,40,265	6·15
II. Commerce	1,445	49,72,013	69·47
III. Agriculture	45	76,272	1·06
IV. Personal and Professional ..	3,371	15,77,312	22·04
V. All others	16	91,630	1·28
Total ..	4,913	71,57,492	100·00

TABLE No. 16.

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF BANKS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO SECURITY FOR THE YEAR 1955-56.

	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	Percentage to total advances.
		Rs.	Per cent.
I. Secured Advances—			
1. Government and Trustee securities.	90	2,45.979	3·44
2. Shares of Joint-Stock companies etc.	30	1,07,389	1·50
3. Gold and Silver Bullion, Gold and Silver ornaments.	3,517	17,89,732	25·01
4. Merchandise—			
(a) Agricultural commodities.	31	1,25,283	1·75
(b) Non-agricultural commodities.	84	8,75,600	12·23
5. Real Estate—			
(a) Agricultural land ..	37	22,136	·31
(b) Other properties ..	117	6,66,520	0·31
6. Fixed Deposits .	214	6,34,976	8·87
7. Other secured advances ..	133	7,13,924	0·97
Total ..	4,253	51,81,539	72·39
II. Other Unsecured Advances ..	660	19,75,953	27·61
Total of I and II ..	4,913	71,57,492	100·00

According to the Agent of the Kolhapur Branch of the State Bank of India, the banking facilities and availability of credit resources in the district may be considered adequate.

Finance.
STATE FINANCIAL AID TO AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY.
State aid to Agriculture.

State aid to Agriculture.—The Government has actively helped and encouraged the organisation of co-operative societies with a view to making available to the agricultural population sources of credit other than the money-lenders. With the same object Government has been granting *Tagai* loans to agriculturists to meet their credit requirements. The Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884, were enacted to enable Government to grant such loans. The former is broadly concerned with long-term finance and the latter with short-term accommodation.

(1) Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land, as for example: (*a*) construction of wells and tanks, (*b*) drainage, reclamation from rivers, protection from floods or from erosion, (*c*) clearance, enclosure or permanent improvement for agricultural purposes, etc.

The Collector (upto Rs. 7,500), Prant Officer (upto Rs. 2,500) and Mamlatdar or Mahalkari (upto Rs. 1,000) are the authorities specified in the Bombay Land Improvement Loans Rules, 1916, who may grant loans and exercise functions of a Collector under the Act.

(2) Loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884.

Under this Act, loans may be granted to holders of arable lands for purchase of seed, fodder, cattle, agricultural stock, implements, rebuilding houses destroyed by any calamity.

(*b*) maintenance of the cultivators while engaged in sowing and tilling their lands prior to the next crop, etc.

The authorities empowered to grant loans under this Act are the Collector, the Prant Officer, the Mamlatdars (specially selected by Collector) and the Mamlatdars or Mahalkaris and the maximum amount per loan which each of them is authorised to grant is Rs. 2,500, 1,000, 500 and 200 respectively.

The rate of interest charged in Kolhapur district is 5¼ per cent. for loans granted under these two Acts. Rigid emphasis is laid on the value and nature of the security which may be accepted against loans. The security generally accepted is immovable property (land) whose value generally is approximately three times the amount of loan. Movable property is rarely accepted as security. Personal security may be accepted, even that of one person provided his solvency is certain. The security of immovable property is almost invariably demanded in case of loans of big amounts.

Tagai advances given in the district under various Acts and schemes were Rs. 2,19,400 in 1950-51, Rs. 4,57,309 in 1951-52 and Rs. 15,39,163 in 1953-54. The bulk of the advances were

CHAPTER 7. Finance. STATE FINANCIAL AID TO AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY. State aid to Agriculture.

granted for different land improvement schemes and well-digging and other irrigation projects. The figures of recoveries were Rs. 2,53,439 and Rs. 4,57,436 in 1952-53 and 1953-54 respectively. In 1956-57, the amount of *tagai* loans sanctioned was Rs. 4,64,953, bulk of which was given for land improvement schemes and various irrigation projects. The rate of interest charged was 5¼ per cent. for loans under both the Acts. The loans were sanctioned on the security of immovable property (land) whose value was not to be less than three times the amount of loan. That is, the ratio of the value of the security to the loan was 3 : 1.

The duration of the advances indicates that bulk of them represented loans for intermediate and long-term periods. The chief reasons for rejection of application were the lack of security or adequate security and old dues to Government.

II. Financial assistance to Industry.

II. *Financial assistance to Industry.*—Financial assistance to industries is given under the Bombay State-Aid to Small-Scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935, as amended upto 20th January, 1956. Loans are granted by the Department of Industries for the following purposes:—construction of buildings, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks, etc., and for purchase of land for these purposes; purchase and erection of machinery and plant, purchase of raw materials; working capital and finishing.

The Government of Bombay introduced some amendments to the State-Aid to Industries Rules, 1935 in 1955 with a view to bringing them in line with the liberalised policy adopted by the Government of India to encourage development of small-scale and cottage industries. The Central Government has placed Rs. 10 lakhs at the disposal of the Government of Bombay for the grant of loans to small-scale and cottage industries on slightly more liberal terms.

Loans up to Rs. 75,000 and in exceptional cases even up to Rs. 1 lakh can now be granted by the Department of Industries to an individual concern.

The rate of interest is brought down to 5 per cent. compound interest per annum with a penalty of half per cent. for arrears in payment of instalments of interest and capital. As a result of further liberalisation of the rules in January 1956, the rate of interest on loans not exceeding Rs. 50,000 was brought down from 5 per cent. to 3 per cent. per annum.

Loans are advanced to the extent of 75 per cent. of the value of the security offered instead of 50 per cent. as formerly provided and they can be given against raw materials, goods in process and stock-in-trade in addition to immovable properties. Loans can also be given against the personal security of persons other than the borrower. The period of repayment has been increased to a maximum of ten years.

Nine industrial units in Kolhapur district were granted loans totalling Rs. 1,97,600 under the State-Aid to Small-Scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935, during the period January, 1955 to February, 1958. Of this the biggest slice was received by four units of the textile industry which among them received in aggregate Rs. 1,25,000 during that period for working capital. The rate of interest charged was three per cent. in all cases and the loans were for a duration of seven years and repayable by annual instalments. Three Engineering concerns were granted a total amount of Rs. 64,000 during the same period. Of this, Rs. 37,000 were given for purchase of machinery and Rs. 27,000 for working capital. The duration of these loans was 10 years and they were to be repaid by annual instalments. The rate of interest charged was three per cent. The other two loans of Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 3,000 each went to two industrial concerns manufacturing respectively the stainless-steel articles and chemicals. These were granted for the purpose of working capital and carried a rate of interest of three per cent. They were repayable in seven and five years respectively in annual instalments.

Financial assistance to cottage and village industries is granted under the following four schemes administered by the Co-operative Department:

1. Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to *bona fide* craftsmen and their co-operative societies for purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.

This scheme has been in operation since 1941 in one form or another. Under the latest version of this scheme, financial assistance upto Rs. 2,000 (Rs. 1,000 for tools and Rs. 1,000 for working capital) can be granted to each artisan. In the case of a trained artisan, 25 per cent. of the amount sanctioned for tools and equipment can be treated as subsidy. The remaining amount for tools and equipment and that for working capital is to be treated as loan bearing interest at 4½ per cent. and repayable in five years in equal monthly instalments. The securities to be furnished may be either one or two personal sureties or the mortgage of immovable property.

Co-operative Societies having at least one-third of their members as *bona-fide* craftsmen or persons following cottage industries can be granted financial assistance upto Rs. 5,000 for the purchase of tools and equipment. Of this amount, upto 50 per cent. can be treated as subsidy and the remaining portion as loan carrying interest at the rate of 4½ per cent. As regards loans for working capital, the Joint Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries has been empowered to give a marginal Government guarantee of 30 per cent. for a credit upto Rs. 15,000 to be raised by each society from the central financing agencies.

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STATE FINANCIAL AID TO AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY.

II. Financial Assistance to Industry.

2. Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to Backward Class artisans for purchase of tools, appliances, etc. (i) Financial assistance upto Rs. 2,000 in each case can be granted to backward class artisans for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital on terms and conditions similar to those obtaining in respect of loans and subsidies to *bona-fide* craftsmen. The only modifications are firstly that if the backward class artisan has received training at one of the peripatetic schools of this Department or in a technical institution recognised by Government, the entire amount of financial assistance is free of interest and secondly, in the case of artisans who have not received such training, 50 per cent. of the amount is free of interest and the remaining 50 per cent. will carry interest at the rate of 4½ per cent.

(ii) Industrial Co-operative Societies of backward class artisans are also eligible for the grant of loans and subsidies as in the case of other industrial co-operative societies. Exemption from interest in the case of a co-operative society is only given when at least 50 per cent. of its members have received training in the peripatetic schools maintained by this Department or in technical institutions recognised by Government.

3. Under this scheme financial assistance in the form of subsidies and loans can be granted to educated persons who have studied upto Secondary School Certificate Examination or passed the Regional Language Final Examination and who are unemployed as well as to educated persons who are already engaged in some business, industry or trade. Assistance upto Rs. 3,000 in each case is offered to enable such persons to set up some cottage industry, business or trade or to expand their activities. A sum upto 25 per cent. of the total financial assistance can be treated as subsidy in deserving cases only and the remaining amount is treated as a loan carrying interest at 4½ per cent. and repayable in five years in equal monthly instalments. Security in the form of one or two personal sureties or the mortgage of immovable property is insisted upon.

4. Scheme for grant of Huskell or Nutan Ghanis on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis:—The scheme is meant to induce *telis* to use improved types of *ghanis* in preference to the old, less productive *ghanis*.

The following two tables show the financial assistance in the form of subsidies and loans sanctioned by the Deputy Director of Cottage Industries and Deputy Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Poona and the Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, to Co-operative Societies and *bona-fide* craftsmen during the period 1953-57:—

TABLE No. 17.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE UNDER THE SCHEME FOR GRANT OF LOANS AND SUBSIDIES TO INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES FOR PURCHASE OF TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT AND FOR WORKING CAPITAL DURING 1953-57.

No.	Industry.	No. of Industrial Societies assisted.	Total amount of subsidy sanctioned.	Total amount of loans sanctioned.	Total of (4) and (5).
1	2	3	4	5	6
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Tanning ..	3	150	10,200	10,350
2	Leather ..	4	212·50	8,137·50	8,350
3	Labour Contract ..	1	....	4,920	4,920
4	Carpentry ..	1	900	2,100	3,000
5	Wool weaving ..	2	....	7,500	7,500
6	Lacquer work ..	1	400	1,600	2,000
7	Rope making ..	3	750	4,000	4,750
8	Chandi audyogik ..	1	....	15,000	15,000
9	Tin and Copper ..	1	....	450	450
10	Pottery ..	5	50	13,100	13,150
11	Handloom ..	31	....	1,76,134	1,76,134
12	Development of Industrial Estate.	1	....	3,76,450	3,76,450
13	Womens' society ..	1	250	750	1,000
	Total ..	55	2,712·50	6,15,341·50	6,23,054

TABLE No. 18.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE UNDER THE SCHEME FOR GRANT OF LOANS AND SUBSIDIES TO BONA-FIDE CRAFTSMEN FOR PURCHASE OF TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT AND WORKING CAPITAL DURING THE PERIOD 1953-57.

No.	Industry.	No. of individual craftsmen assisted.	Total amount of subsidies sanctioned.	Total amount of loans sanctioned.	Total of (4) & (5).
1	2	3	4	5	6
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Leather ..	4	..	5,750	5,750
2	Tailoring ..	2	78	684	762
3	Carpentry .	1	....	1,150	1,150
4	Cement pipe Industry .	1	...	3,000	3,000
	Total ..	8	78	10,584	10,662

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STATE FINANCIAL AID TO AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY.
II. Financial Assistance to Industry.

Financial assistance by the Government is also given in the form of Government guarantee sanctioned to different types of Industrial Co-operative Societies against the credit they receive from the central financing agency of the district on the recommendation of the Joint Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries. In 1955-56 Government extended to three industrial societies an amount of Rs. 2,500 as Government guarantee on which loans upto Rs. 11,000 could be raised.

Financial assistance is given also to hand-loom industry by the State under two schemes viz., Hand-loom Development Scheme and Hand-loom Relief Scheme. The industry occupies a very important position in the rural economic structure. It can provide occupation to a large number of unemployed or underemployed persons. Hand-loom products, however, suffer from the acute competition of the products of large-scale textile industry and both the Government of Bombay as well as the Government of India took steps to support and rehabilitate the hand-loom industry. By a scheme introduced in 1953, a total amount of Rs. 57,400 had been given by Bombay Government as working capital to weavers' co-operative societies. In 1952 the Government of India constituted an All-India Hand-loom Board and allotted certain quotas to each State Government out of the proceeds of the additional excise duty which was levied in 1953 on mill cloth at the rate of three pies per yard. A number of development schemes were submitted to the All-India Hand-loom Board for being financed from the quota of the cess fund allotted to Bombay State. On the recommendation of the Board some of the schemes were approved by the Government of India and consequently financial assistance was made available to the industry under these schemes.

In 1954-55 and 1955-56, a total amount of Rs. 1,77,745 was given as financial assistance in the form of loans, prizes and grants under various schemes. This included Rs. 77,900 given as loans for working capital to weavers' co-operatives, Rs. 62,225 and Rs. 29,178 constituted the grants of rebate on sales of hand-loom cloth in the year 1954-55 and 1955-56 respectively. Grant of Rs. 3,000 and loans and subsidies amounting to Rs. 2,800 were given for establishment of dye-houses during these two years. Rs. 1,643 were given as a grant for opening sales depots. Under the scheme for grant of loans for share capital Rs. 184 were granted during the same period. Under another scheme for replacement of throw-shuttle-looms by fly-shuttle looms Rs. 325 were given as grant. Prizes worth Rs. 420 were distributed among weavers' societies. Grant of Rs. 70 was given for hiring carts and another grant of Rs. 75 was given for publicity and advertisement to weavers' societies. Besides providing financial assistance directly through the various departments, the Government gives medium long-term

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STATE FINANCIAL AID TO AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY.
II. Financial Assistance to Industry.

financial assistance, though indirectly, to small-scale and medium-sized industries through the Bombay State Finance Corporation which is a statutory body having its capital mainly contributed by the State Government. The Government is providing financial aid under different schemes to co-operative societies by way of subsidies, loans and contribution to the share capital of the societies. In Kolhapur district, the total amount given in 1958-59 by way of loans was Rs. 4,03,846, subsidies Rs. 1,61,759 and contribution to the share-capital Rs. 2,70,000. The societies to receive this assistance were the agricultural credit societies, co-operative marketing societies, co-operative farming societies, lift irrigation societies, a milk union and backward class housing societies.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.
Public Limited Companies.

Public Limited companies.—Public limited companies, other than joint-stock banks and investment trusts numbered 13 in the district in 1956. They were engaged in some form of productive activity such as trading, manufacturing, transport, etc. These companies required capital for the purpose of acquiring and maintaining plant, equipment, buildings and other fixed assets and to hold current assets in the form of finished and partly finished products, raw materials and stores, liquid cash balances, Government and industrial securities etc. The funds required may be obtained from net profits and stock capital, loans, and debentures, etc.

Classification.

Of the thirteen companies, three were engaged in the generation of electricity and its supply and three in the wholesale trade other than that in foodgrains. Of the remaining, six belonged to the manufacturing group and one was engaged in agricultural products. Of these, one each was registered in the years 1942, 1949, 1950 and 1955, two in 1946, four in 1947 and three in 1948.

The companies have been classified according to the nature of the business transacted by them. In the manufacturing group, are included iron and steel industry, sugar, textile industry and drug industries. However, for indicating their financial position for the year 1956, the manufacturing group is further divided into groups for facilitating industry-wise study of financial position for the year under review:—

TABLE No. 19.

STATEMENT OF ASSETS AND LIABILITIES FOR THE YEAR 1956.*

Liabilities.

Name of the Industry.	Subscribed/ paid up capital.	Reserves.	Other Reserves.	Loans.	Miscellaneous liabilities.	Profit and loss.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1. Iron & Steel	1,04,185 0 0	....	....	2,79,718 12 0	55,327 4 9	....
2. Sugar	28,56,765 0 0	38,32,082 3 11	6,50,000 0 0	18,76,096 10 4	63,87,418 8 0	24,047 14 1
3. Agro-Industry .. .	10,000 0 0	422 10 0	....	3,400 0 0	....	....
4. Electricity generation & Supply	2,72,214 1 0	8,120 11 0	58,646 8 9	27,528 12 8	10,615 10 9	....
5. Engineering . ..	1,35,850 0 0	....	....	94,874 2 6	1,52,740 3 0	26,764 1 9
6. Medicine .. .	1,42,450 0 0	7,500 0 0	...	1,11,241 8 4	71,823 4 1	....
7. Miscellaneous ..	1,56,560 0 0	....	....	5 776 0 0	45,577 6 6	....

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Finance.
JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.
Public Limited Companies.

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

Assets.

Name of the Industry.	Fixed Assets Plant and machinery.	Other Fixed Assets.	Inventories.	Liquid Assets.	Receivables.	Profit and Loss.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1. Iron & Steel . ..	92,446 2 6	42,604 9 3	2,05,778 11 0	6,705 15 6	2,19,998 15 3	69,696 11 3
2. Sugar	29,85,947 9 2	29,62,609 6 0	82,45,929 0 10	6,04,227 5 2	8,28,296 15 2	....
3. Agro-Industry	2,449 10 6	....	2,200 0 0	7,542 7 6	....	1,630 8 0
4. Electricity generation & Supply	82,776 14 0	2,50,769 1 1	6,564 14 7	13,305 6 9	10,087 5 6	16,622 2 3
5. Engineering	50,276 6 0	72,619 3 0	1,95,671 3 3	27,069 11 9	64,591 15 3	....
6. Medicine .. .	12,798 5 0	4,702 5 9	1,20,697 3 3	995 3 10	89,630 13 1	1,04,130 13 6
7. Miscellaneous	8,518 0 0	75,066 4 9	13,151 15 1	3,763 11 5	25,506 14 6	81,906 8 2

* *Note.*—The table shows the liabilities and assets position of the *public limited companies*, industry wise. Out of 13 public limited companies in the district, the Balance Sheets for the year 1956 were available only in respect of nine companies. Only six *broad* heads under liabilities and assets sides respectively have been provided to indicate in general the companies' financial position for the year under review.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.
JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.
Public Limited Companies.

There were in the district thirty-one private limited companies working in 1956. Their classification shows that (i) eight were in the transport group; (ii) nine were in the manufacturing group; (iii) eight were in trading and (iv) six were in the miscellaneous group. The distribution of the nine companies in the manufacturing group was as given below:—

(1) Oil mills	4
(2) Cotton	1
(3) Pharmaceutical	1
(4) Fertilisers	1
(5) Toilet	2
	9

Out of thirteen companies in the trading and selling group, six were selling agencies and two were managing agencies. The miscellaneous group included dairy and stock raising companies.

The paid up capital of these companies stood at Rs. 68,63,050. There were only two companies which had a paid up capital above Rs. 15,00,000 viz., the Madhavnagar Cotton Mills Ltd., and the United Agencies. Those that had paid up capital between Rs. 5,00,000 and Rs. 10,00,000 numbered three and those between Rs. 1,00,000 and Rs. 5,00,000 numbered five.

The total paid up capital at the various groups is shown below:—

Groups.	Rs.
(1) Manufacturing companies	37,10,600
(2) Trading and Selling agencies	20,86,100
(3) Transport Companies	6,55,750
(4) Miscellaneous	4,10,600
Total ...	68,63,050

CHAPTER 8—TRADE.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

CENSUS STATISTICS.

THE CENSUS STATISTICS OF 1951 reveal that trade and commerce provided a primary source of livelihood to 53,858 persons and a secondary means of livelihood to 9,894 persons in Kolhapur district. Of 53,858 persons deriving their livelihood from trade, 14,417 persons were self-supporting; 36,796 persons non-earning dependents and 2,645 persons earning dependents.

The following table gives the number of self-supporting persons engaged in various trades in Kolhapur district:—

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS TRADES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO 1951 CENSUS.

Sub-division.	Employers.	Employees.	Independent workers.	Total.
(1) Retail trade otherwise unclassified.	360	727	1,968	3,055
(2) Retail trade in food-stuffs including beverages and narcotics.	887	710	5,012	6,609
(3) Retail trade in fuel including petrol.	106	127	352	585
(4) Retail trade in textile and leather goods.	255	351	1,366	1,972
(5) Wholesale trade in food-stuffs.	226	349	256	831
(6) Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	42	28	167	237
(7) Real Estate ..	....	...	1	1
(8) Insurance ..	1	24	14	39
(9) Moneylending, Banking and other financial business.	146	641	301	1,088
Total ..	2,023	2,957	9,437	14,417

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Trade.

CENSUS STATISTICS.

The table indicates the following four distinct characteristics of the district viz., (i) concentration of traders in retail trade, (ii) an overwhelming number of retail traders in foodstuffs, textile and leather goods, (iii) slight concentration of wholesale trade in foodstuffs as compared to other commodities and (iv) predominance of independent workers.

Of the total number of seif-supporting traders, 84·7 per cent. were engaged in various retail trades; 7·4 per cent. in wholesale trade; 7·5 per cent. in financing business; and 0·27 per cent. in insurance and real estate business. Of the total self-supporting traders 65·4 per cent. were independent workers; 20·5 per cent. were employers and 14·05 per cent. were employees.

The following table gives rural and urban composition of the population whose primary source of livelihood is trade and commerce:—

TABLE No. 2.

Sub-division.	Rural.	Urban.	Total.
Self-supporting	4,246	10,171	14,417
Non-earning dependents	10,306	26,490	36,796
Earning dependents	1,345	1,300	2,645
Total ...	15,897	37,961	53,858

Of 14,417 self-supporting persons, 10,171 are from urban areas and 4,246 from rural areas. The table reveals that in spite of the fact that a major proportion of the population lives in rural areas, urban areas accounted for 71·4 per cent. of the mercantile community as against 28·6 per cent. which accounted for rural areas. Of the dependents on the trading community, 71·9 per cent. reside in urban areas and the rest in rural areas.

The table below (Table No. 3) gives the total number of agriculturists and non-agriculturists earning their livelihood from trade and commerce as a secondary means of livelihood

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Trade.
CENSUS STATISTICS.

prima facie suggests that a greater percentage of agriculturists depends upon trade for their secondary means of livelihood than non-agriculturists: —

TABLE No. 3.

Sub-division.	Agricultural class.	Non-Agricultural class.	Total.
Self-supporting ..	3,346	419	3,765
Earning-dependents ..	1,913	831	2,744
Total ..	5,259	1,250	6,509

Note.—Separate figures for Chandgad taluka, which forms part of Kolhapur District since Reorganisation of States, 1956, are not available and hence are not included in the above tables.

TRADE ROUTES.

THE MIRAJ-KOLHAPUR BRANCH OF THE SOUTHERN RAILWAY is the only railway line which connects Kolhapur district with Poona and Bombay. The main items of export from Kolhapur are *gul* and sugar.

"Till 1845 when the British took over the superintendence, the State had no metalled roads. Of the path-ways, those that led west down the Sahyadris to the coast were hardly fit for even lightly laden cattle, and those that went inland were beaten cattle tracks". Even today the district, detached by a long range of the Sahyadri whose western scrap is precipitious has no road communication to sea ports except the State Highway which passes through Amba Ghat. Starting at Amba and ending at Udgaon, it covers 61 miles and passes through Shahuwadi, Panhala, Karwir, Hatkanangale and Shirol talukas of Kolhapur district.

Bounded on the north, by Varna river, the Poona-Bangalore Road is the only National Highway passing through Kolhapur district. It covers in all about 29 miles in this district, passing through the talukas of Hatkanangale, Kolhapur and Kagal. The same road connects Kolhapur with Belgaum in the south. On the east, Kolhapur is well linked with Satara and Belgaum districts. Most of the taluka headquarters are connected now by roads with Kolhapur city which is the main trade centre.

The Kaladgi-Devagad Road (State Highway) passes through the talukas of Bhudargad, Kagal and Radhanagari. The length of the road in the district is about 46 miles and 5 furlongs. The other State Highway is the Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road entering the district of Kolhapur

near village Amba (Shahuwadi taluka) and passes through the talukas of Hatkanangale, Shahuwadi and Shirol and Panhala mahal. The total length in the district is 66 miles and 7 furlongs.

The Major District Roads are: —

(1) Kolhapur-Bavada Road (34·4 miles) passing through the Karvir taluka and Panhala and Bavada mahals.

(2) Kolhapur-Wasi-Parite-Ghotwade-Gaibi Road (24 miles and 5½ furlongs) running parallel to the river Bhogawati, passes through Karvir and Radhanagari talukas.

(3) Waghabil-Panhala Road (4 miles) starts from " Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road " and runs west throughout its length.

(4) Gadhinglaj-Ajra-Savantwadi Road (27 miles) runs south-west till the village Amba on the south-western border and enters Ratnagiri district. It passes through Gadhinglaj taluka and Ajra mahal.

(5) Kolhapur-Bavada Road (34 miles, 4 furlongs) passes through the Karvir taluka and Panhala and Bavada mahals.

(6) Ichalkaranji-Hatkanangale Road (5 miles, 5 furlongs) emanates from the Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur State Highway and passes through the Hatkanangale taluka only.

(7) Jaisingpur-Shirol-Kurundwad Road emanates from the " Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur State Highway. The total length in the district is 12 miles and 6 furlongs.

(8) Bambavade-Shirale Road (8 miles) emanating from the Kolhapur-Bijapur-Ratnagiri State Highway, enters the district at Bambavade in Shahuwadi taluka and runs north upto Shirale in the same taluka and then runs north-west upto Kapashi also in Shahuwadi taluka.

(9) Bhadgaon-Channekupi-Nool-Basarge-Halkarni-Khanapur Road (14 miles and 2 furlongs) starts from Bhadgaon, a village on the Gadhinglaj-Bhadgaon-Mahagaon-Nesari-Adkur Road and goes south-east upto Halkarni and then goes east upto Khanapur (Bijapur district).

The old Gazetteer narrates—" Of the imports and exports, at Kolhapur, grain, cloth, earthenware, baskets and cattle largely come from neighbouring places; most of these articles find their way to Nipani in Belgaum and Chiplun and Rajapur in Ratnagiri. From Sangrul, rice is largely sent to Nipani and other places. At Kadoli grain is largely sold; from Kadoli, cotton, molasses and chillies, and from Panhala rice are largely sent. At Sarud, grain is brought in large quantities and cloth is exported. At Vadgaon, which is a large trade centre, dates, cocoanut, kernel, sugar and English yarn are brought from

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TRADE ROUTES.

the seaports and a number of cattle from neighbouring places for sale; and besides chillies, tobacco and wheat and other grains, molasses is largely exported. At Gadhinglaj the chief trade is in grain, coarse cloth and cattle. At Kapasi the local dealers take grain, chillies and other articles for sale to Islampur, Miraj, Sangli and Tasgaon; at Malkapur grain and cattle come from neighbouring villages and cocoanuts, dates and other articles from Ratnagiri ports. The chief exports are rice, *jvari,* wheat, grain and chillies. At Murgud grain comes in large quantities from neighbouring villages and rice is exported. At Ichalkaranji grain and cattle are brought for sale. Besides, at the large trade centres, forty-seven small weekly markets are held.

"The chief imports are salt, metal, cocoanuts, dates, groceries, oil, hardware, twist and piecegoods. Salt was formerly brought entirely by pack bullocks from the Konkan. Under metal come gold, silver, copper, brass and iron. During the American War (1862-65) gold and silver were largely imported; during the scarcity of 1876-77 a large amount of gold and silver in ornaments left the State; and since the return of prosperity in 1881 and 1882, gold and silver have again been imported. Sheets of copper and brass are brought in small quantities, and ready-made vessels and drinking mugs in large quantities chiefly from Poona. Formerly iron was locally smelted and it is now largely brought from Bombay by Vanis and Bohoras. It is much used for cart tiers and axles and in making iron pots. Dates, groceries, kerosene and cocoanut oil, iron buckets and water-pots are brought from Bombay. Steam-spun twist, both English and Bombay-made, is brought and sold to hand-loom weavers. Piece-goods are hand-made and steam-made. Of hand-made goods, the chief are turbans and women's robes from Poona, Shahapur, Sholapur and Yeola, waist-cloths or *dhoturs* from Nagpur and Shahapur and silk waist-cloth or *pitambars* and robes or *paithanis* and turbans from Burhanpur and Poona. Of the steam-made cloth the coarse strong-cloth is Bombay-made and the finer-cloth is from England. The chief exports are of grains, rice, *jvari, bajri, nachni,* wheat and gram; of groceries and spices coriander, turmeric and chillies; of oilseeds sesamum, linseed and earthnut, and of other exports cotton, cotton tape, hemp, tobacco, molasses and sugar."[1]

CHANGE IN PATTERN AND ORGANIZATION.

SINCE THE COMPILATION OF THE OLD GAZETTEER in 1886 there has been a considerable change in the pattern as well as organization of trade. The railway system in India came in the wake of British rule. It revolutionized the whole transport system and led to the growth of towns which became centres of organized trading activities.

[1] Page Nos. 204, 206-207.

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CHANGE IN PATTERN AND ORGANIZATION.

Facilities of road transport are fairly widely available to the district. The Poona-Bangalore National Highway No. 4 passes through the district. The major district roads and other district roads also play a vital part. This has led to *gul* and tobacco, the principal exportable commodities of the district, finding a wider market. The growth of important trade centres like Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, etc., establishment of organizations of traders and merchants' associations, the trend towards regulated markets (Kolhapur and Gadhinglaj) and the establishment of co-operative trading societies like the Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd., Kolhapur, are all indicative of a definite change in the pattern as well as organisation of trade.

TRADE CENTRES.

THIS DISTRICT PRODUCES mainly *gul*, chillies and turmeric as cash crops while paddy and jowar are grown as staple crops. Fruits and vegetables are also grown in the vicinity of Kolhapur city as it serves a good market for sale of such produce. Operators in the market play an important role in trade. *Dalals* and *adatyas* are a connecting link between buyers and sellers and they serve as good middle-men between traders. Commodities are brought for sale in the market by the sellers and kept with their approved *dalals*. These *dalals* try to sell the produce either to their fellow-traders or they purchase it themselves. Bills and vouchers are prepared and the amount due is paid to cultivators after deducting all charges. Hours of busines are generally in the morning and in the evening. The delivery of produce is given either at shops of commission agents immediately after sale or at the shop of the traders. These traders generally take delivery after a couple of days. Groundnuts are sold at so many seers a rupee and an *atki* or eight maunds of 16 seers each for a particular sum of rupees.

Agriculturists themselves bring their produce for sale. Commodities like *tur*, gram, etc. are imported from villages through commission agents or the agents themselves go to the villages for purchase. Transport is provided to a considerable extent by trucks, and bullock-carts, though railway wagons are also utilized often.

Generally, *adatyas*, co-operative societies and banks provide finance. Even though the rate of interest charged by *adatyas* is exhorbitant as compared to that charged by co-operative societies and banks, the cultivators prefer to borrow from the former because they get advances quickly without going through too many formalities. The terms and conditions involved in borrowing from private agencies like the *adatyas* are that the producers should bring their produce to the shop of the *dalals* and execute the sale through them.

WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES.

THERE ARE EIGHT WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES in the district viz. Kolhapur (Karvir taluka), Jaisingpur (Shirol taluka), Ichalkaranji and Vadgaon (Hatkanangale taluka), Gadhinglaj, Ajra and Halkarni (Gandhinglaj taluka), constituting roughly one market, regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939; and Malkapur (Shahuwadi taluka). Chief commodities handled at these centres are as shown below: —

(1) Kolhapur ..	Jaggery, groundnut, paddy, rice, jowar, chillies, gram, cotton and betel leaves.
(2) Jaisingpur	Tobacco, jaggery, groundnut and jowar.
(3) Gadhinglaj, Ajra and Halkarni.	Jaggery, groundnut, chillies, cotton, paddy and tobacco.
(4) Malkapur ..	Jaggery, groundnut, onions and chillies.
(5) Ichalkaranji	Tobacco, jowar, cotton, groundnut, *kulthi* and chillies.
(6) Vadgaon ..	Jowar, groundnut, jaggery, chillies and *tur*.

Out of these eight centres of wholesale trade, two viz. Kolhapur and Gadhinglaj are regulated markets, declared under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, and Ajra and Halkarni serve as sub-markets to the main market at Gadhinglaj. The transactions of regulated commodities in these two regulated markets mentioned above are described in the relevant section. Below is an account of important wholesale trade centres.

Kolhapur.

Kolhapur.—This centre is mainly famous for *gul* and groundnut but paddy, rice, jowar, chillies, gram, cotton and betel leaves also enter the wholesale trade. *Gul* and groundnut are regulated commodities and the former worth about Rs. 4½ crores is exported annually to Gujarat and other places.

CHAPTER 8. Trade. WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES. Kolhapur.

The table below gives an idea about the approximate annual turnover—both in respect of quantity and value of various commodities arrived at Kolhapur in 1955-56: —

TABLE No. 4.

Name of commodity.	Annual Turnover.	
	Quantity in Bengali maunds except where otherwise specified.	Value
		Rs.
Jaggery	15,19,569	1,82,34,828
Groundnuts	2,51,121	40,17,936
Paddy	22,008	3,96,044
Rice	35,755	12,44,160
Jowar	5,10,920	71,52,880
Chillies (dried)	3,360	3,36,000
Cotton (ginned and unginned)	5,500 bags.*	1,10,000
Turmeric	1,000 bags.[1]	30,000

[1] One bag of turmeric weighs nearly 2½ to 3 B. Mds.
* One bag of cotton weighs nearly 1 to 1½ B. Mds.

These commodities after being brought to the market are sent to various places. The table below shows the total quantity exported outside the district as well as out of Maharashtra State: —

TABLE No. 5.

Name of commodity.	Total arrivals in the market.*	Total exports.	Local consumption.
Gul	15,19,569	14,29,569	44,901
Groundnuts	2,51,121	50,224	78,503
Paddy	22,008	11,579	8,416
Rice	35,755	19.069	14,304
Jowar	5,10,920	2,81,006	2,04,368
Chillies (dried)	3,360	2,360	1,000
Cotton (ginned and unginned)	5,500 bags.	....	5,500 bags.
Turmeric	1,000 bags.	900 bags.	100 bags.

* Quantity in Bengali maunds except where otherwise specified.

Gul is exported to Bombay, Poona, Gujarat and Karnatak (Mysore State), groundnuts to Bombay and Karnatak; paddy, rice, jowar and chillies to Konkan and other parts of Kolhapur district. Turmeric is exported to Sangli.

Market charges for the above commodities levied in 1955-56 in the market are given below:—

	Rs.	As.	Ps.	
Commission for regulated commodities.	1	9	0	Per cent. of sale proceeds.
Jaggery (per lump)	0	0	6	Hamali.
	0	0	3	Weighment charges.
	0	0	1	Market cess.
Groundnut (per bag)	0	0	3	Hamali.
	0	0	4½	Weighment charges.
	0	0	1½	Market cess.

(Unregulated commodities).

	Food grains.			Chillies.		
	Rs	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.
(1) Commission—per cent. of sale proceeds.	1	11	0	1	11	0
(2) Hamali (per bag)	0	2	0	0	2	0
Hamali (per cart)	0	12	0	0	12	0
(3) Weighment charges (per bag)	0	1	0	0	1	0
Weighment charges (per cart)	0	6	0	0	14	0
(4) Charity (per cart)	0	1	6	0	6	0

These charges are deducted in case of jowar and chillies. No such charges are taken in respect of cotton. In the case of turmeric, they are as follows:—

	Rs.	As	Ps.
Commission	1	9	0
Hamali (per cart)	1	8	0
Weighment charges (per cart)	0	7	0

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WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES.

Kolhapur.

No charges in kind are collected in the case of foodgrains and cotton. But in the case of chillies and turmeric, charges in kind as levied in the market are shown below:—

Item.	Chillies.	Turmeric.
Bardan sut (per bag).	1½ to 2 seers ...	1½ to 2 seers.
Kadada (kadta) (per bag).	1 seer ...	3 seers.
Kata sut (per bag).	1 seer ..	2 seers per bag, weighing upto 94 seers. 2½ seers weighing from 95 to 106 seers. 3 seers per bag, weighing over 106 seers.

There were 699 merchants in 1955-56 dealing in regulated commodities like *gul* and groundnut; all of them were licensed by the Kolhapur Market Committee. In addition, there were 275 merchants including 25 general commission agents dealing in other commodities which were not regulated.

Regulated commodities are brought by agriculturists and sold generally through the general commission agents. Sometimes they sell directly to consumers. This is also true in respect of unregulated commodities such as jowar, chillies, rice etc.

Jaisingpur.

Jaisingpur.—Jaisingpur is primarily a market for tobacco which is exported to Bombay, Calcuta and other centres. Generally agriculturists bring tobacco to the shops of general commission agents for sale. There were 38 traders including 12 general commission agents operating in the market (1955-56). Representatives of the agents go to villages for purchasing. Produce thus purchased is brought to the market by them after obtaining permission of the Central Excise Department Superior quality is generally purchased by commission agents.

Sales in villages in respect of groundnut and chillies are also effected upto 1/10th of the total arrivals at the market.

Annual turnover, both in respect of quantity and approximate value is shown below:—

Name of commodity.	Annual Turnover.	
	Quantity.	Value.
		Rs.
Tobacco	1,59,760 B. Mds.	1,11,83,200
Jaggery	3,768 lumps (rawas).	36,736
Groundnuts	1,02,260 bags.[1]	18,40,572
Jowar	12,000 bags.[1]	4,50,000

[1] A bag contains approximately 2¼ B. Mds. but in case of tobacco, the weight may be (approximate) 1¼ B. Mds.

These commodities, after they are brought to the market, are exported to various places. Tobacco is exported to Nipani (Mysore State), Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Konkan, jaggery to Sangli, chillies to Kolhapur and other parts of the district while groundnut is exported to Bombay after removing the shells. An idea as to how much quantity is exported and how much is retained for local consumption can be obtained from the figures given below for the year 1955-56:—

Name of commodity.	Exports.	Local consumption.
Tobacco	1,51,772 B. Mds	7,988 B. Mds.
Jaggery	3,570 rawas.	188 rawas.
Chillies	145 bags.	569 bags.
Groundnut . ..	20,392 bags.	81,808 bags
Jowar	*Nil.*	12,000 bags

It can be seen from the figures given above that out of the total arrivals of tobacco at the market, nearly 95 per cent. is exported to Nipani (Mysore State), Madras and Konkan. Of the arrivals of jaggery 94 per cent. is exported to Sangli while nearly 70 per cent. of arrivals of chillies are consumed locally. In the case of groundnut only about 20 per cent. of the arrivals are sent to Bombay after being shelled.

Tobacco is not sold immediately after its arrival. It is sold as and when it is demanded. Generally it is sold after two to six months. Bags are first weighed twice before and after the bargain is struck. After displaying the samples, auction-sale is held. Different samples of tobacco, each weighing about one-fourth seer (value about Rs. 1-4-0 to 1-8-0) are given free of charge to prospective buyers who retain the same.

Weighment is done by the employees of the general commission agents. Empty bags are supplied by general commission agents to agriculturists and rent for the same is charged at eight annas per bag until tobacco is finally sold.

After sale is effected, payment is made by buyers to general commission agents after three months. The latter make payment to the producer [agriculturist] only after the sale proceeds are received by them from the buyers. Commission agents make advances to agriculturists for cultivation purposes and when the produce is sold finally, they recover

CHAPTER 8. — Trade. WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES. Jaisingpur.

their money with interest from the cultivators who have borrowed from them. If payment is demanded immediately the bargain is struck, the buyer usually claims a rebate (*vattao*) to the extent of Rs. 4-11-0 to Rs. 6-0-0. If payment is made after one month Rs. 3-2-0 as *vattao* is generally allowed while no rebate is permitted for payments made after three months. Godown rent charged for storing tobacco is eight annas per bag upto the time sale takes place.

I. Charges in cash levied at the market are:—

Commission—

(1) Tobacco	... Rs. 5-0-0 per cent.
(2) Gur	... Rs. 2-8-0 per cent.
Hamali	... Re. 0-3-0 per bag.
Hamali—*Gul*	... Re. 0-14-0 per cart of 24 lumps.
Groundnut	... Rs. 8-0-0 per cart.

II. Charges in kind are shown below:—

(1) Groundnut	Bardan 1½ seer per bag, per cart of 16 bags. 2 seers *mati sut*.
	Kadada—1 seer per 40 seers.
Groundnut-seed.	Bardan 1½ seer, *Kadada* ½ seer.
(2) Cotton	... 1 seer *Kadada* for 100 seers, 2 seers *Gadi sut*, 1½ seers *Bardan sut*.

Gadhinglaj.

Gadhinglaj.—In this market, the main commodities handled are *gul*, groundnut, chillies, paddy, rice, tobacco, cotton etc. out of which *gul*, groundnut and chillies are regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. The total number of merchants operating in the market was 457 in 1955-56 which included 29 general commission agents and 48 wholesalers. Gadhinglaj, Ajra and Halkarni are regulated markets constituted under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. The main market is at Gadhinglaj while Ajra and Halkarni are sub-markets.

Agriculturists bring their produce for sale on the market yard and sell that produce through the agencies of "C" class traders operating in the market area. Nearly 75 per cent. of the total produce is generally brought for sale on the market every year. Open auctions are held in the case of regulated commodities viz. *gul*, groundnut and chillies when a representative of the market committee supervises the auction-sales. Cotton is brought to the market by agriculturists and sold to merchants.

Figures of total turnover, quantity exported and local consumption of the commodities handled at these three centres in 1955-56 are given below:—

Gadhinglaj.

Name of commodity.	Total Arrivals.	Exports.	Local consumption.
1	2	3	4
Jaggery ..	62,550 rawas.	56,250 rawas.	4,935 rawas.
Groundnut ..	81,379 bags.	73,764 bags.	8,195 bags.
Chillies ..	803 bags.	500 bags.	278 bags.
Jowar ..	72,500 B. Mds.	5,000 B. Mds.	62,500 B. Mds.
Cotton ..	1,500 Bods.	1,500 Bods.	....
Tobacco ..	1,500 B. Mds.	1,000 B. Mds.	500 B. Mds.
Paddy ..	5,000 B. Mds.	1,000 B. Mds.	4,000 B Mds.

Ajra.

Name of commodity.	Total Arrivals.	Exports.	Local consumption.
Jaggery .	7,613 rawas.	5,610 rawas.	1,903 rawas.
Groundnut ..	600 bags.	450 bags.	100 bags.
Chillies ..	850 bags.	...	850 bags.
Paddy ..	1,000 B. Mds.	800 B Mds	200 B. Mds.

Halkarni.

Name of commodity.	Total Arrivals.	Exports	Local consumption
Jaggery ..	5,113 rawas.	4,823 rawas.	240 rawas.
Groundnut ..	8,066 bags.	7,831 bags.	150 bags.
Chillies ..	158 bags.	100 bags.	53 bags.
Tobacco ..	1,500 bags.	1,000 bags.	500 bags.
Cotton ..	280 bags.	280 bags.	....

CHAPTER 8. — Trade. WHOLESALE TRADE CENTRES. Gadhinglaj.

These commodities are then exported to various areas in Maharashtra State and outside. Sixty per cent. of the arrivals of *gul* was exported to Konkan and Mysore, 25 per cent. to Bombay, Gujarat and Poona. Local consumption was nearly 15 per cent. In groundnut 60 per cent. of the arrivals was exported to Bombay, 20 per cent. to Konkan and 20 per cent. local consumption. Ninety-five per cent. of tobacco was exported to Nipani (Mysore State), local consumption being practically negligible. Similarly 80 per cent. of cotton was exported to Gokak and 20 per cent. to Kolhapur. Sixty per cent. of arrivals of chillies was exported to Konkan region and 30 per cent. to Bombay and Poona areas.

Market charges. shown, in the table below, were collected from the owner of the produce i.e., the first seller:—

TABLE No 6.

Name of commodity.	Market fee.	Hamali.	Weighment charges.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Gul (per rawa) ..	0 0 2	0 0 4	0 0 3
Groundnut (per bag) ..	0 0 2	0 0 6	0 0 4½
Chillies (per bag) ..	0 0 4	0 0 6	0 0 4
Cotton (per bag) ..	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 1 0
Paddy (per bag) ..	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
Rice (per bag) ..	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6

Commission of one pice per rupee or Rs. 1-9-0 per cent. is collected on the value of the agricultural commodities sold. Customary market charges are also levied. They are 20 tolas per bag of cotton as *kasar* and *sut* on tobacco is charged at the rate of Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per cent. and deducted from the sale proceeds of tobacco. No other charges or deductions are made in respect of transactions in the regulated commodities viz. *gul*, groundnut and chillies.

As regards storage facilities, there are only six *pucca* godowns owned by "A" class traders. Others occupy private dwelling places for storing the commodity during the season and for which charges have to be paid. For storage of gur, the rate varies from Rs. 1-12-0 to Rs. 2-0-0 per *rawa*, for groundnuts the rate is Re. 1-0-0 to Rs. 1-4-0 per bag while the rate for chillies varies from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2-8-0 per *bhod*.

For obtaining a better return with minimum costs possible, provision for transportation of goods in time is essential. There is no out agency office at Gadhinglaj. Traders and general commission agents have to go frequently to Sankeshwar, a place nine miles away, to book wagons to facilitate early despatch of goods.

Malkapur.

Malkapur.—This centre is important for wholesale trade in jaggery, groundnut, onions and chillies. There were in all 36 traders—working also as general commission agents—including retailers, constituting the market. Generally the produce is brought for sale on weekly bazar days. As soon as carts loaded with *gul*, groundnut and onions arrive on the market days to the shops of general commission agents, the produce is examined and samples of the said commodities taken by *adatyas*. Prices are fixed either through open auction or by mutual negotiation. Payment is made to the seller after deducting all the market charges.

Annual turnover both in respect of quantity and value is shown below:—

Name of commodity.	Annual turnover.	
	Quantity.	Value.
		Rs.
Jaggery	1,00,000 rawas.	9,00,000
Groundnut	2,000 bags.	3,10,000
Onions	22,000 bags.	1,20,000
Chillies	8,000 bags.	1,50,000
Jowar . . .	1,000 bags.	1,20,000
Rice	8,000 bags.	4,80,000

Following deductions are made:—

Gul

Dalali .	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3-0-0 per cent.
Hamali .	Re. 0-0-6 per rupee or Re 0-8-0 per cart.
Dharmada ...	Re. 0-2-0 per cart.
Hamali from the buyer.	Re. 0-1-0 per cart.

Groundnut—

Kuta sut .	16 tolas per maund.
Mati sut ...	1 seer per maund.
Bardan sut ...	8 seers *kacha* per bag.
Dalali ..	Re. 1-0-0 per cart or Re. 0-0-6 per rupee.
Hamali ...	Re. 0-8-0 per cart.

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Trade.

IMPORTS.

THE CHIEF IMPORTS IN THE DISTRICT are building materials, Logs of timber, teak and ply-wood, nails, screws, iron-bars and other materials used in building and constructional activities are imported from Bombay, Mysore, Belgaum and Dharwar. Coal from Madras, distemper and oil-paint from Bombay; cement from Bombay and Shahabad; iron, tin, brass, copper and aluminium ware and stainless-steel utensils are imported from Bombay. Glass-wares are imported from Ogalewadi (Satara) and Bombay. Among food and grocery articles: rice is imported from Belgaum and Madras; bajri from Nasik, Gujarat and Nagpur; wheat from Bijapur and Karnatak, Kodra and Bavto (*Ragi*) from Karnatak; *lang* from Madhya Pradesh, peas from Belgaum, *tur* from Karnatak (when local production is less); *math* and *mug* from Bijapur, Barsi; gram from Sholapur. Tea and coffee are imported from Bombay, Nilgiri and Calcutta (Darjeeling); sugar is imported from Bombay and Uttar Pradesh; salt and spices from Bombay; dates from Bombay; plantains from Belgaum and Satara; mangoes from Ratnagiri and other fruits including dry fruits from Bombay and Kashmir. Potatoes are imported from Bangalore and Belgaum; fish and honey from Ratnagiri. Toilet and cosmetics, cutlery and perfumes are imported from Bombay. Mill-made cloth is imported from Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, hand-loom cloth from Madras and Bangalore, power-loom cotton cloth from Bombay, Sholapur and Surat and is supplemented by local production. Mill-made, hand-loom and power-loom made silk cloth is imported from Bangalore and Banaras, mill-made, hand-loom and power-loom woolen cloth from Madras and Bombay and nylon, rayon and linen cloth is imported from Bombay. *Dhotars* and sarees are imported from Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur and are to a certain extent supplemented by local production; Banarasi and Kasabi sarees are imported from Banaras, Cambay and Surat, Chanderi sarees from Gwalior, *zari* sarees from Banaras, Madura and Coimbatore, voiles from Bombay and Ahmedabad and brocades from Bombay and Surat. Ready-made clothes are imported from Bombay and Madras. Medicines, drugs and other narcotics are imported from Bombay and Baroda. Matches are imported from Madras. Of the stationery articles—fountain-pens, pen-holders, papers, ink, paper-weights, pins, pencils, erasers and nibs are imported from Bombay while slates are imported from Mysore.

WEEKLY BAZARS.

In assembling and distributing goods, next to the wholesale trade centres come the market places and periodical bazars as they are called, held at different places and on different days in the district. In many villages and towns markets are periodically held, once or twice a week or on a fixed day or days. Fairs and these weekly bazars are complementary to each other.

The total number of bazars held in the district is about 83. The value of the business carried on at these places on the bazar day or days shows a wide range from a minimum of Rs. 100 to Rs. 50,000. Particular mention may be made of the following places where a considerable amount of business is transacted viz., Wadgaon (Rs. 50,000) in Hatkanangale taluka, Gadhinglaj (Rs. 48,000) in Gadhinglaj taluka, Ghotawade (Rs. 10,000) in Radhanagari taluka and Jaisingpur, Kurundwad and Shirol (Rs. 12,000 each) in Shirol taluka.

The following table gives the list of villages and towns where such weekly bazars are held together with the days on which they are held:—

TABLE No. 7.

MARKET PLACES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Taluka or Mahal.	Name of the town or village where bazar is held.	Day on which bazar is held
1	2	3
(1) Ajra	(1) Ajra . ..	Friday.
	(2) Bahirewadi	Tuesday.
	(3) Uttur .. .	Saturday.
(2) Bavada	(1) Tisanji (Salavan) ..	Friday.
	(2) Gagan-bavada ..	Thursday.
	(3) Kusur . ..	Wednesday.
	(4) Dhundavade	Sunday.
	(5) Palsambe . ..	Tuesday
(3) Bhudargad.. ..	(1) Shengaon ..	Thursday.
	(2) Gargoti .. .	Wednesday.
	(3) Kadgaon ..	Friday.
	(4) Pimpalgaon .. .	Tuesday.
	(5) Vasnoli	Friday.
(4) Chandgad ..	(1) Kowad . .	Thursday.
	(2) Turkewadi	Wednesday
	(3) Dukkarwadi .. .	Friday.
	(4) Adakur	Wednesday.
	(5) Here ..	Saturday.
	(6) Kanur .	Monday.
	(7) Kudnur . .	Sunday.
	(8) Naganwadi . .	Sunday
	(9) Chandgad .. .	Thursday.
(5) Gadhinglaj ..	(1) Gadhinglaj	Sunday.
	(2) Mahagaon	Monday.
	(3) Halkarni	Wednesday.
	(4) Nool Kasba	Saturday.
	(5) Nesari Kasba. ..	Thursday.
	(6) Kaulage . ..	Sunday.

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WEEKLY BAZARS.

TABLE No. 7—*contd.*

Taluka or Mahal. 1	Name of the town or village where bazar is held. 2	Day on which bazar is held. 3
(6) Hatkanangale ..	(1) Herle	Saturday.
	(2) Rukadi	Thursday.
	(3) Vadgaon Kasba ..	Monday.
	(4) Hatkanangale ..	Tuesday.
	(5) Hupari	Saturday.
	(6) Kumbhoj . ..	Sunday-Wednesday.
	(7) Ichalkaranji	Friday.
	(8) Kini	Friday.
	(9) Rendal	Thursday.
	(10) Paragaon . ..	Tuesday.
	(11) Pattan Kadoli ..	Sunday-Wednesday.
	(12) Alke Kasba .. .	Saturday.
(7) Kagal	(1) Kapashi	Monday.
	(2) Mhakve . .	Sunday.
	(3) Kagal . ..	Thursday.
	(4) Murgud	Tuesday.
	(5) Banage	Monday.
	(6) Saravade Bk. ..	Friday.
	(7) Shendur	Wednesday.
	(8) Shangaon	Sunday.
(8) Karvir	(1) Kolhapur	Sunday.
	(2) Sangrul	Thursday.
	(3) Kandgaon ..	Thursday.
	(4) Hosur Damala ..	Tuesday.
	(5) Ispurli	Friday.
	(6) Gandhinagar	Daily.
	(7) Khebwade . ..	Tuesday.
	(8) Kodoli . ..	Monday.
(9) Panhala	(1) Kodoli Kasba ..	Friday.
	(2) Kale Kasba	Saturday.
	(3) Satave	Saturday.
	(4) Panhala Kasba ..	Sunday.
	(5) Bhogaon	Wednesday
	(6) Padal . ..	Monday
(10) Radhanagari .	(1) Radhanagari	Sunday.
	(2) Saravade .. .	Friday.
	(3) Chotavade .. .	Monday.
	(4) Tarale Kasba ..	Thursday.
	(5) Dhamod .. .	Saturday.
	(6) Valve Bk.	Saturday.
	(7) Thikpurli ..	Wednesday.
	(8) Rashiwade Bk. .	Tuesday.
(11) Shahuwadi ..	(1) Malkapur	Friday.
	(2) Kotoli	Tuesday.
	(3) Bambavade . ..	Thursday.
	(4) Bhedasgaon .. .	Saturday.
	(5) Sarud Kasba . .	Tuesday.
	(6) Charan	Thursday.
	(7) Kupshi	Thursday.
(12) Shirol	(1) Shirol . .	Saturday.
	(2) Kurundwad . .	Thursday.
	(3) Jaisingpur	Sunday.
	(4) Dattawad	Wednesday.
	(5) Nandani	Wednesday.
Total ..	(82)	

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REGULATED MARKETS.
Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939.

TO ELIMINATE UNFAIR PRACTICES IN THE COMMERCIAL TRANSACTIONS of agricultural produce and to provide for better regulation of buying and selling of agricultural produce, an effort was made in the late twenties and thirties of this century by enacting the Bombay Cotton Markets Act in 1927, which was subsequently repealed and replaced by the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. The Royal Commission on Agriculture (1927) and the Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee (1931) both stressed the need for affording facilities and protection to the agricultural community in the disposal of marketable surplus of agricultural produce by establishing a chain of regulated markets.

"The prosperity of the agriculturists and the success of any policy of general agricultural improvement" observed the Royal Commission, "depend to a very large degree on the facilities which the agricultural community has at its disposal for marketing to the best advantage as much of its produce as surplus to its own requirements." Indian agriculturists are generally illiterate and traders were found to be taking undue advantage of the illiteracy prevalent among them. Their economic condition had also deteriorated on account of the "Great Depression" of 1930. To help agriculturists in such an unfortunate position, the then Government of Bombay enacted in 1939 the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, which came into force with effect from November, 1939; rules under the Act were prepared and finally promulgated in 1941.

This Act was passed with the avowed object of establishing equity in the bargaining power of agriculturists and merchants, promoting mutual confidence, preventing malpractices and giving a fair deal to the farmers. With these objects in view, the legislation sought to regulate the various features of agricultural marketing in regulated markets. The broad features of the Act are:—

(1) Clear definition of market charges, reduction of excessive charges and prohibition of unauthorised additions to them;

(2) Regulation of market practices;

(3) Licensing of market functionaries including buyers, brokers and weighmen;

(4) Use of standard weights and measures;

(5) Arrangement and settlement of disputes regarding quality, weighment, deductions, etc.;

(6) Sale by open auction or open agreement;

(7) Appointment of market committees, fully representative of growers, traders, local authorities and Government;

(8) Arrangement for display of reliable and up-to-date market information in the market yard; and

(9) Control by Government over markets and Market Committees.

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These objectives are to be achieved by exercising control over purchases and sales of agricultural produce in specified areas. This control is to be exercised by the Agricultural Produce Market Committees, constituted under the Act and these are recognised as corporate bodies and given powers to levy fees and form a fund to be used for the purposes specified. All trade allowances except those that are specifically allowed by the rules and bye-laws are prohibited. Power is also taken for supersession of market committees that prove incompetent. Accordingly the Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Kolhapur was constituted on 15th October 1945, and the Gadhinglaj Agricultural Produce Market Committee was constituted on 27th May 1948.

The Act provides for establishment of market committees consisting of 15 members—seven from agriculturists' constituency, four representing traders, one representing local authorities and three Government nominees. It also empowers the market committee to issue licences to and recover licence fees from traders, general commission agents, weighmen, *hamals* and cartmen; to regulate trade practices by fixing maximum trade allowances such as brokerage, weighment, *hamali*, etc., to collect cess from general commission agent on agricultural produce brought by producers; and to settle disputes between traders and traders or traders and agriculturists, or both, arising out of quality, containers and trade allowances.

Method of sale.

The producers bring cartloads of their produce in the market yard i.e., in General Commission Agents' shops and godowns. The General Commission Agent enters the name of the owners of produce together with the quantity of each commodity brought by them in the arrivals and sales register given by the market committee. Cess clerks of the market committee collect cess on the produce brought to individual General Commission Agent's shops and godowns for sale. The produce is then unloaded and weighed by the licenced weighmen in the presence of the seller and General Commission Agent. The weights are then entered by the weighment slips in triplicate. The first copy is given to the seller, the second to the General Commission Agent and the third is retained by the office of the market committee. The produce is sold by open auction [as specifically mentioned in the Act] and not by secret signs and agreement. The secretary of the market committee and licenced purchasers move from shop to shop of general commission agents holding auction during the time of sale. Immediately after the bargain is struck, an agreement is entered into and signed by the seller, buyer and the commission agent in the presence of an official of the market committee. Once the bargain is struck, on no account is variation permitted.

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REGULATED MARKETS.
Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939.
Method of sale.

A copy of the agreement is given to the office of the market committee. The buyer then takes delivery of the purchased produce on the same day or before 12 noon of the next day and pays the amount due to him to the General Commission Agent within three days from the date on which the bargain is struck. However, it is incumbent on the General Commission Agent to make immediate payment to the cultivator after deducting all trade allowances, such as commission, brokerage, godown rent, insurance, *hamali,* weighment, etc. The Commission Agent takes receipt for payment made to the cultivator in triplicate, the original being given to the cultivator, duplicate to the market committee office and the triplicate retained by the general commission agent. These receipts are checked by the staff of the market committee, verifying the rates and weights. If there are extra charges in the receipts, the market committee sees that they are refunded to the cultivator by the General Commission Agent concerned.

The Market Committee displays prices of the commodities ruling in the particular market and other important markets of the State.

The Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Markets Committee.

Prior to 1941, there was no Market Department in the State of Kolhapur, nor was there any provision for periodical inspection of the weights and measures used by merchants. The attention of the State Government was drawn to this question for the first time by the Trade Inquiry Committee (1938), with Shri P. C. Patil, as its Chairman. This committee recommended that Government should provide for inspection of weights and measures and regulate markets in the State. It was as a result of these recommendations that the Market Department came into existence.

In 1945, the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939 was made applicable to the State. The Kolhapur market was regulated in accordance with the provisions of the above Act from 15th October 1945 and the full-fledged Market Department came into existence from 1st June 1946.

Kolhapur is an important market for *Gul* and groundnut and they were regulated under the Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1945. A Market Committee has been appointed which works along the lines laid down in the Act with effect from the 1st March 1949.

Market Area.

A market as defined in the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939, includes the market proper, a principal market yard and a sub-yard, if any. It is in fact a trading area in which substantially homogeneous conditions of supply and demand are encouraged. This definition presupposes (1) free mobility of the product within a given area so that when the price in one part of the market is out of gear in

CHAPTER 8. Trade. REGULATED MARKETS. The Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Markets Committee. *Market Area.*

relation to the other, there will be a movement into, or out of, that part from and to other parts, and (2) easy communications among the potential buyers and sellers in the area so that each one of them has an access simultaneously to the market information. According to the recommendations of the Expert Committee (1955), appointed to review the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939, ordinarily there should be one market in any given market area for the purpose of trading in agricultural commodities regulated under the Act. Before determining the market area for any regulated market, care should be taken to ensure that such an area is contiguous so as not to promote diversion of trade, that there is sufficient produce to be marketed and that, there are adequate resources for the market committee to enable it to provide reasonable facilities for orderly marketing of the agricultural produce. In this market area, the control of the market committee may be direct where possible and indirect where inevitable, depending upon the proximity of the committee's office and the staff at its disposal, but that its control must operate throughout the market area is the essential condition for the success of the regulated market within that area.

The market area of the Kolhapur Market Committee extends to Karvir, Bhudhargad and Radhanagari talukas and Panhala mahal.

Within the market area, there can be several types of markets which are but part and parcel of the regulated market. Control over the market proper, i.e., market yard and the place around it will have to be direct. This is really the primary wholesale market where goods are received from merchants, who might have purchased the same elsewhere, for being marketed. The Act makes it obligatory for every market committee to have at least one market yard. It also requires that all agricultural produce brought in the market must pass through the market yard. The market yard of the Kolhapur Market Committee is situated in Shahupuri peth of Kolhapur. There are no sub-yards and the market proper extends to the area within the municipal limits of Kolhapur municipal borough. The market committee has already proposed to extend the present market area to Hatkanangale, Kagal and Shahuwadi talukas and Gagan-Bavada mahal and to open sub-market yards at Vadgaon in Hatkanangale taluka, Murgud in Kagal taluka and Malkapur in Shahuwadi taluka

Income and Expenditure.

The income and expenditure of the Kolhapur Market Committee as given in the annual report for the year 1955-56 reveal that in the year under review there was a deficit to the tune of Rs. - 7,842-5-9. Income was Rs. 76,142-15-3 and expenditure Rs. 83,985-5-0. Similar figures for the years 1953-54 and 1954-55 show surpluses to the tune of Rs. 36.176-13-10 and Rs. 40,603-8-0 respectively. The reason for deficit in the

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Income and Expenditure.

year 1955-56 was that the market committee had to pay income-tax of Rs. 31,373-7-0 during that year. (It made an appeal to Government to exempt market committees from paying income-tax whereupon Government agreed to do so). Moreover the committee took a loan of Rs. 5 lakhs in the same year for which an expenditure of Rs. 6,893-12-0 was incurred by way of registration of documents, registration fee and stamp duty.

Market Functionaries.

A market can successfully function only when there are sellers to sell the commodity and buyers to buy the same and when they are assisted by a personnel which is required for completing the process of buying and selling. A transaction is said to be complete only when the buyer agrees to buy and the seller agrees to sell at a particular price; the commodity is weighed; and the sale note showing the description of the commodity, its weight, price and the market charges deductable therefrom is delivered to the seller and the cash due to the seller is paid against the delivery of goods.

Agriculturists (i.e. the sellers), though at liberty to sell their produce directly to the buyer (i.e. traders), generally employ an agent to act on their behalf and to conduct the transaction, as the act of sale requires some experience. These middlemen may be sellers or buyers, may be either commission agents i.e., *adatyas*, or brokers i.e., *dalals*. Their main job is to study the needs of the buying trade, assemble goods and sort them, and regulate the flow of goods.

Traders.

The trader, as defined under the Act is a person buying or selling agricultural produce as principal. These traders fall into four categories, viz., 'A' class traders who buy in a market yard and sell in the yard. 'B' class traders who act only as commission agents in the market yard or sub-yards, 'C' class traders who buy anywhere in the market area excepting the market yard and sub-yard and sell only in the market yard and sub-yard and 'D' class traders who buy anywhere in the market area but sell only to consumers. But all the four categories were not functioning in the market area in 1955-56.

Other Functionaries.

The two other important functionaries are weighmen and hamals. The job of the former is to weigh the goods when the seller agreed to sell them at a particular price. In executing this weighmen discharge an important function in as much as the correctness of the weight is the first safeguard for the seller to get full value for his produce. Regulated commodities are weighed by them for which they get remuneration from the agriculturists, i.e., the sellers. In 1955-56 rates of remuneration were Re. 0-0-3 per "*gul rawa*" and

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Other Functionaries.

Re. 0-0-9 per two groundnut bags; and *hamali* was Re. 0-0-6 per *gul rawa* and Re. 0-0-6 per groundnut bag. Weighment is done on the premises of general commission agents who supply weighmen with standardized weights and measures and a balance. It is incumbent upon the agents to supply weights and measures according to the provisions of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act.

The other functionaries in the market are composed of a heterogenous group playing a secondary role in connection with the transfer of goods from one place to another or from one person to another. They include cartmen and other transport operators. Their contribution to the successful functioning of a regulated market is indirect.

The objectives of a well organised market can be served only when those participating in the market behave properly. The Expert Committee, appointed in 1955 by the Government of Bombay to review the working of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939, particularly emphasized this point. The success or failure of a market depends mainly on the behaviour of the market functionaries. Though agricultural producers are users of the market, they act through the General Commission Agents, and as such, it is these agents who are the main market functionaries who can make or mar a market. The regulation of their entry and control over their behaviour, therefore, require special attention.

The qualifications of market functionaries would depend upon the nature of the function. The General Commission Agent is the mainstay of the market, because as an agent to the seller, he is the custodian of the goods belonging to his principal and he is responsible for making payment to him. He is also expected to furnish a manifesto of the number of packages and their size, grade and quality, to the market committee and render the best service to the seller. To discharge the last function, he must be in close touch with the market mechanism. To qualify himself for the job, a Commission Agent must have sufficient financial resources to finance his business, must have a shop where goods can be inspected and auction-sale can be held, a godown where the produce can be stored, and weights, etc.

The Expert Committee have recommended that the basic qualification for allowing a person to function as 'A' and/or 'B' class trader should be an assurance to the market committee of his financial solvency and the guarantee that it would be maintained during the period he is allowed to function in the market, and his ability to maintain proper equipment, viz., a shop, a godown, stamped weights and measures and personnel to help him. They have further recommended that the conditions of solvency should be applicable to the other class of traders as well and should include his past conduct of a trader, his undertaking to conform to the provisions of the Act and the directions of the market committee and his capacity for the experience in trading.

Now a days, there is a tendency on the part of traders to work as commission agents. The Royal Commission on Agriculture and the Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee and several other committees have pointed out in the past the danger of one person being allowed to play a dual role. The two functions are in a way complementary to each other, but what is undesirable is the process of merging one class of business with the other and it should not be allowed to thrive to the detriment of the market. In the main, when a commission agent selling goods on behalf of others is also a seller of his own goods, there is every likelihood that he will sell his goods first. To that extent the dual role inflicts injury on the sellers, i.e., the agriculturists, who appoint him as agent. Secondly, when he is an agent of a seller and also of a buyer, especially on behalf of a trader, in the same transaction, he may buy cheaper and sell dearer and charge his commission to both parties. These evils have got to be checked. The Expert Committee has therefore recommended that no commission agent ('B' class trader) should be allowed to act as an agent for two parties in the same transaction, nor should he be allowed to buy goods as a principal when he is himself the agent of the seller.

The following table gives the number of licence-holders in the Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Market Committee for the years 1950-51 to 1955-56. These include (1) general commission agents, (2) 'A' and 'B' class traders, (3) combined licences

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comprising 'A' class traders and general commission agents and (4) weighmen:—

TABLE No. 8.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF LICENCE-HOLDERS IN KOLHAPUR MARKET COMMITTEE FOR THE YEARS 1950-51 TO 1955-56.

Types of Licencees.	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56.
General Commission Agents No. 1 (Having dealings exceeding 8,000 Gul Rawas and Groundnut bags in the year. The limit was 10,000 in 1951-52).	18	2	249	113	133	110
General Commission Agents No. 2 (Having dealings upto 8,000 and below Gul Rawas and Groundnut bags in the year. The limit was 10,000 in 1951-52).	30	2	..	95	72	57
General Commission Agents No. 3 n. p.	214	130	..	..	..	..
'A' Class Traders No. 1 (Having dealings exceeding 8,000 Gul Rawas and Groundnut bags in the year. The limit 10,000 in 1951-52).	2	33	51	9	7	5
'A' Class Traders No. 2 (Having dealings 8,000 and below Gul Rawas and Groundnut bags in the year. The limit was 10,000 in 1951-52).	5	50	..	32	27	16
'A' Class Traders No. 3 ..	156	198	..	.	..	..
Combined licence holders—General Commission Agents and 'A' Class traders.	..	..	..	48	65	97
'B' Class Traders ..	9	3	2	1	1	1
Weighmen	80	75	87	81	85	84

The following tables give figures of arrivals and sales of regulated commodities—*Gul* and groundnut:—

(1) giving figures of arrivals and sales of *gul rawas* and groundnut bags in the Kolhapur market, for the years, 1947-48 to 1955-56,

(2) giving figures of arrivals of *gul* and groundnut in the market area of Karvir, Bhudhargad and Radhanagari talukas and Panhala mahal for the years 1951-52 to 1955-56: —

TABLE No. 9.

TABLE SHOWING ARRIVALS AND SALES OF REGULATED COMMODITIES IN THE KOLHAPUR AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE MARKET COMMITTEE.

Year.	Gul Rawas. (Arrivals).	Gul Rawas. (Sales).	Groundnut bags. (Arrivals).	Groundnut bags. (Sales).
1947-48 ..	26,40,434	....	93,019	....
1948-49 ..	19,43,405	....	2,05,145	....
1949-50 ..	16,62,673	....	3,02,976	....
1950-51 ..	21,15,719	....	3,02,858	....
1951-52 ..	33,98,352	....	3,15,150	....
1952-53 ..	20,54,059	....	2,06,056	....
1953-54 ..	18,09,462	18,30,330	2,23,210	2,03,313
1954-55 ..	33,06,964	32,92,036	2,29,751	2,29,658
1955-56 ..	35,65,043	35,51,589	2,55,804	2,55,710

TABLE No. 10.

TABLE SHOWING ARRIVALS OF REGULATED COMMODITIES IN SUB-YARDS AT KARVIR, RADHANAGARI, BHUDHARGAD TALUKAS AND PANHALA MAHAL.

Year.	Karvir Taluka.		Radhanagari Taluka.		Bhudhargad Taluka.		Panhala Mahal.	
	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1951-52 ..	12,658	11,417	6,621	3,082	3,864	3,027	5,367	7,217
1952-53 ..	12,048	11,789	6,204	2,405	3,863	3,606	4,450	6,900
1953-54 ..	9,295	10,961	5,482	3,221	2,410	3,660	5,035	7,380
1954-55 ..	11,580	10,855	5,899	2,375	3,054	4,048	5,363	7,251
1955-56 ..	12,687	10,840	6,212	2,741	3,925	4,318	4,313	7,207

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The Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Markets Committee.

Exports from Kolhapur.

The Kolhapur market is the biggest market for *gul* in Maharashtra State. The average turnover of this regulated commodity is Rs. 5 crores. *Gul rawas* are exported by railway wagons and by motor trucks, although the latter are more expensive.

Export of *gul* to Gujarat area constitutes the bulk of exports, on an average 42 per cent. of this total. The arrivals of *gul rawas* increased from 20,55,000 in 1952-53 to 32,96,668 in 1955-56 and the export to Gujarat from 8,42,000 in 1952-53 to 15,00,000 (45½ per cent.) in 1955-56.

The following table gives figures of export of *gul rawas* from Kolhapur to various areas viz., Gujarat, Bombay, Karnatak, Konkan, Kathiawar (Saurashtra), etc.: —

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TABLE No. 11.

TABLE SHOWING EXPORTS OF GUL RAWAS FROM KOLHAPUR TO VARIOUS AREAS FOR THE YEARS 1952-53 TO 1955-56.

Areas.	1952–53			1953–54			1954–55			1955–56		
	Through Railways.	Through Motor Trucks.	P. C.	Through Railways.	Through Motor Trucks.	P. C.	Through Railways.	Through Motor Trucks.	P. C	Through Railways.	Through Motor Trucks.	P. C.
Gujarat	8,42,000	....	40·8	7,75,800	..	40·8	13,35,000	...	40·4	15,00,000	....	45·5
Bombay and Suburbs	....	2,25,000	10·9	...	1,81,000	9·5	....	4,29,000	13·0	....	3,25,000	9·8
Saurashtra (Kathiawar).	35,000	....	1·7	60,000	...	3·2	1,25,000	....	3·8	1,50,000	....	4·6
Karnatak ..	1,36,000	2,50,000	18·8	57,600	3,25,000	20·2	50,000	6,50,000	21·2	1,00,000	5,00,000	18·2
Konkan ..	...	4,00,000	19·5	....	3,75,000	19·7	....	5,25,000	15·9	....	5,00,000	15·2
Goa ..	17,000	...	0·8	...	...	..	..	....	..	....	....	..
Satara ..	...	....	..	..	..	..	....	....	..	....	75,000	2·3
Poona ..	....	....	..	...	..	..	....	...	..	....	1,00,000	3·0
Total	10,30,000	8,75,000	92·7	8,93,400	8,81,000	93·4	15,10,000	16,04,000	94·3	17,50,000	15,00,000	98·6
Local Consumption	1,50,000		7·3	1,25,062		6·6	1,88,036		5·7	46,668		1·4
Grand Total ..	20,55,000		100	13,99,462		100	33,02,036		100	32,96,668		100

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Market Cess.

Under Section 11 of the Act, every market committee is empowered to levy fees on agricultural produce brought and sold by licencees in the market area. The Kolhapur Market Committee has levied the following cess *ad valorem*:—

	Rs.	As.	Ps.
Gul—one cart load of 24 *rawas*	0	2	0
Groundnut—one cart load of 16 bags (unshelled).	0	2	0
Groundnut—one cart load of 8 bags (shelled)...	0	2	0

The market cess on *gul* and groundnut both shelled and unshelled collected by the market committee for the last five years is given below:—

Year.	Rs.	As.	Ps.
1951-52	20,881	6	3
1952-53	13,254	15	0
1953-54	12,123	1	9
1954-55	19,530	12	3
1955-56	21,100	5	3

Prices of regulated Commodities.

Prices in the Kolhapur market naturally reflect the general price trend in the country.

The following table gives the prices for the quinquennium 1951-52 to 1955-56:—

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TABLE No. 12.

TABLE SHOWING PRICES* OF GUL AND GROUNDNUT PREVAILING AT KOLHAPUR DURING THE QUINQUENNIUM. 1951-52 TO 1955-56.

Year.	Gul.			Groundnut.		
	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average.
	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.
1951-52 ..	7 4 0	17 9 0	12 6 6	16 0 0	17 9 0	16 12 6
1952-53 ..	14 6 0	23 14 0	16 2 0	18 4 0	22 0 0	20 2 0
1953-54 ..	15 3 0	27 15 0	21 9 0	15 1 0	18 11 0	16 14 0
1954-55 ..	8 8 0	21 6 0	14 15 0	9 1 0	12 3 0	10 10 0
1955-56 ..	9 0 0	19 2 0	14 1 0	13 10 0	16 0 0	14 13 0

*(Prices are in Bengali Maunds of 82 2/7 lbs.).

N.B.—Table prepared from the Annual Reports submitted by the Market Committee, Kolhapur.

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Gul was a controlled commodity from October 1950 and so the maximum rates were fixed by Government. But since 1951 the actual rate prevalent in the market was less than the controlled rate due to the increase in arrivals of *gul* in the market. The price of *gul* went down because of a favourable season. Similar was the case with groundnut which was not controlled. At the beginning of 1954-55 season, prices were higher but afterwards there was a decline which had an unhealthy effect on agriculturists. The year 1955-56 saw in the beginning a fall in prices, then stabilisation at a level and again an upward trend. The average price was Rs. 14-1-0 and Rs. 14-13-0 for *gul* and groundnut respectively, per Bengali maund. In January the level of price of *gul* and groundnut was at a peak level viz., Rs. 22-4-0 and Rs. 19-6-0 respectively, but afterwards there was a slight decline.

Storage Facilities.

The better functioning of a regulated market depends to a certain extent on the facilities available for storing the regulated commodities brought by sellers, often from a distance. There was only one licensed warehouse in the Kolhapur market owned by the Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd., Kolhapur, but it was turned into a godown. It has a capacity to store 32,000 *gul* rawas at a time. In 1955-56 there were about 300 hired godowns owned by traders and general commission agents. The market committee did not own any godown or ware-house.

Credit Facilities.

There are ten co-operative banks in Kolhapur and merchants obtain loans on the security of goods. The rate of interest charged is about 9 per cent.

Development of Market Yard.

As stated in the report, the Committee experienced much difficulty in the administration of the Act on account of want of a separate enclosed market yard. A vigilant watch over the working of the market operators could not be kept, as the present yard is scattered. The trading in *gul* and arrivals of commodities in large volumes in the peak period has created another difficulty of sales by open auction. The market committee in 1955-56 had in its possession, 97 acres 35 gunthas of land on the Poona-Bangalore Road and about 27 acres of Government land are proposed to be handed over to the committee and when that is done the Committee hopes to provide facilities such as a cattle shed, drinking water facilities etc.

Government has appointed an *ad-hoc* Gul Market Yard Construction Committee for the purpose of carrying out various plans of development and construction work of the market yard. This committee intended to develop the yard completely by constructing all buildings and godowns required by traders. The market committee has obtained a loan of Rs. 5 lakhs from Government for the construction of a gur market at Kolhapur.

Rates prevailing in the markets of Sangli, Baramati, Shrirampur, Karad, Tasgaon, etc., are received and the same are exhibited on the notice board for information to the various functionaries in the market.

The Government of India permitted Andhra and Madras States to export *gul* to foreign countries. The Market Committee of Kolhapur tried its best to secure such a licence because Kolhapur *gul* is considered to be the best in the whole State. The permission to this effect was granted in 1954.

Gadhinglaj Market Committee.

The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Gadhinglaj was constituted under the Kolhapur Government Notification No. MK-GD/47, dated 15th November 1947, as per Kolhapur Markets Act, 1945. After the merger of Kolhapur State into the then State of Bombay in 1949, the market area of the Gadhinglaj Market Committee was notified under notification No. P.M.A.-6253, dated 18th July 1954, for regulation of agricultural produce—*gul*, groundnut (shelled and unshelled) and chillies. The Bombay Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1939, was applied to the market area from 1949.

Area of operation and Market Yard.

Area of operation of the Gadhinglaj Market Committee is Gadhinglaj taluka, 37 villages of Kagal taluka and Ajra mahal. The principal market yard is situated in the "Pirajirao Peth" of Gadhinglaj. There is no sub-yard.

Income and Expenditure.

Income and expenditure figures of the Committee as given in the annual report for the year 1955-56 reveal that in the year under review there was a surplus to the extent of Rs. 3,885-14-0.

Income and expenditure figures for the last four years given below will give a clear picture about the working of this market committee:—

Year.	Income.	Expenditure.	Surplus
	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.
1952-53 ..	14,520 2 9	9,453 9 9	5,066 0 0
1953-54 ..	13,084 10 6	10,734 6 8	3,250 4 3
1954-55 ..	16,457 0 0	10,583 8 3	5,873 8 6
1955-56 ..	16,029 10 3	12,143 12 3	3,885 14 0

CHAPTER 8. Trade. REGULATED MARKETS. Gadhinglaj Market Committee. *Market Functionaries.*

The table given below gives the number of licence-holders in the Market Committee. These include general commission agents ('A' and 'B' classes) traders ('A', 'B' and 'C' classes) and weighmen for the years 1951-52 to 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 13.

TABLE SHOWING MARKET FUNCTIONARIES IN THE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE MARKET COMMITTEE, GADHINGLAJ FOR THE YEARS 1951-52 TO 1955-56.

Market Functionaries.	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56
General Commission Agents.					
'*A*' *Class.*—Traders having business of more than 200 carts of each of the regulated commodities.	23	15	15	20	21
'*B*' *Class.*—Having business of less than 200 carts of each of the regulated commodities.	16	21	19	12	11
Traders '*A*' *Class.*—Having business of more than 200 carts of each of the regulated commodities.	18	13	14	17	23
Traders '*B*' *Class.*—Traders having business less than 200 carts of each of the regulated commodities.	71	50	44	39	28
Traders '*C*' *Class.*—Traders allowed to purchase in the market area except market proper and sell on the market yards or in the market areas.	242	178	160	168	158
Weighmen	9	7	6	7	6

The following two tables show the figures of arrivals of regulated commodities, viz., *gul*, groundnut (shelled and unshelled) in the Gadhinglaj market yard and sub-yards at Halkarni, Ajra and Murgud. Table No. 14 gives figures of arrivals and sales of regulated commodities in the Gadhinglaj market yard and table No. 15 shows figures of arrivals at sub-yards of Halkarni, Ajra and Murgud:—

TABLE No. 14.

TABLE SHOWING ARRIVALS AND SALES OF REGULATED COMMODITIES IN THE GADHINGLAJ MAKET FOR THE YEARS 1951-52 TO 1955-56.

Year.	Gul Rawas.		Groundnut bags (Shelled and Unshelled)		Chillies bags.	
	Arrivals.	Sales.	Arrivals.	Sales.	Arrivals.	Sales.
1951-52 ..	1,52,462	1,44,456	1,01,200	1,01,086	7,420	7,318
1952-53 .	84,384	84,384	81,806	81,806	3,230	3,230
1953-54 ..	83,400	82,234	72,959	72,204	1,606	1,606
1954-55 ..	1,47,371	1,47,511	1,05,587	1,05,731	7,566	7,557
1955-56 ..	1,73,450	1,73,494	92,646	91,990	16,875	17,542

N.B.—Prepared from the Annual Reports of the Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Gadhinglaj.

TABLE No. 15.

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Market Functionaries.

STATEMENT SHOWING ARRIVALS OF REGULATED COMMODITIES IN HALKARNI, AJRA AND MURGUD SUB-YARDS FOR THE YEARS 1951-52 TO 1955-56.

Year.	Halkarni.			Ajra.	Murgud.	
	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.	Chillies bags.	Gul.	Gul Rawas.	Ground-nut bags.
1951-52 ..	18,084	14,410	2,922	14,958	678	2,762
1952-53 ..	4,143	6,843	256	11,185	....	....
1953-54 ..	6,818	8,066	317	10,151	.	.. .
1954-55 .	4,860	10,000	796	18,649	. ..	.. .
1955-56 ..	1 744	9,799	710	12,986	....	....

N.B. -Prepared from the Annual Reports of the Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Gadhinglaj.

Market cess obtaining in this market, under the Act, is shown below: —

	Rs.	As.	Ps.	
(1) *Gul* .. .	0	0	2	(per lump).
(2) Groundnut ..	0	0	2	(per bag).
(3) Chillies	0	1	0	(per Bod)
(4) Chillies . ·	0	0	4	(per bag).

Cess collected by the Market Committee for two years is shown below: —

Name of the Regulated commodity.	1954-55.	1955-56.
	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.
1. Gul	1,536 9 3	1,807 4 0
2. Groundnut	1,101 5 9	957 15 5
3. Chillies .. .	157 10 0	350 14 0
Total .	2,795 9 0	3,116 1 3

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Market Charges

In addition to the market cess, other market charges such as commission, *hamali*, etc., are levied by the market committee. They are as under:—

Charges.	Gul.	Groundnut.	Chillies.
	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.
Commission per Rupee ...	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
Hamali per Rawa ..	0 0 4	.	....
Do. per Bag ..	.	0 0 6	0 0 6
Do. per Bod ..	....	..	0 1 0
Weighment per Rawa .	0 0 3	.	.
Do. per Bag ...	..	0 0 4½	0 0 1
Do. per Bod	...	..	0 0 9

Prices of regulated commodities.

In the following two tables, an attempt is made to show wholesale and retail prices and those during harvest time and off-season in the Gadhinglaj market in respect of regulated commodities. Table No. 16 shows wholesale and retail prices of *gul*, groundnut and chillies and table No. 17 shows prices during the harvest time and those during off-season. The classification—'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D' is explained here:—

'A'	Farm Price ..		Price which the producer gets for the sale of his produce at his farm.
'B'	Primary Price.	Wholesale	Price at which the wholesaler purchases from the producer in bulk or at the auction in an assembling market.
'C'	Secondary Price.	Wholesale	Price at which a wholesaler or retailer purchases from another wholesaler in the assembling market.
'D'	Retail Price ...		Price at which the ultimate consumer purchases from the retailer.

TABLE No. 16.

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Gadhinglaj Market Committee.
Prices of regulated commodities.

STATEMENT SHOWING WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES IN THE GADHINGLAJ MARKET.

(Prices in Rs. per B. Md.)

Year	Month.	Variety.	Wholesale Prices.						Retail prices.		
			1 B			2 C			3 D		
1	2	3	4			5			6		
		Gul.	Rs.	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.
1950-51 ..	November 1950 to April 1951.	No. 1	18	12	0	20	0	0	20	8	0
	May 1951 to October 1951.	,,	23	8	0	25	0	0	25	8	0
1953-54 ..	November 1953 to April 1954.	No. 1	25	2	0	26	4	0	27	0	0
	May 1954 to October 1954.	..	23	6	0	24	0	0	24	8	0
1954-55 ..	November 1954 to April 1955.	No. 1	11	8	0	12	4	0	13	0	0
	May 1955 to August 1955.	,,	12	12	0	13	8	0	14	0	0
		Groundnuts.									
1950-51 ..	November 1950 to March 1951.		18	0	0	20	0	0	21	0	0
	April 1951 to October 1951.	..	20	0	0	21	0	0	21	8	0
1953-54 ..	November 1953 to March 1954		17	8	0	18	0	0	19	0	0
	April 1954 to October 1954.	..	16	8	0	16	0	0	16	0	0
1954-55 ..	November 1954 to March 1955.	..	10	8	0	11	0	0	11	8	0
	April 1955 to August 1955.	..	12	8	0	12	12	0	13	12	0
		Chillies									
1950-51 ..	November 1950 to January 1951.	..	125	0	0	130	0	0	135	0	0
	May 1951 to September 1951.	..	140	0	0	145	0	0	109	0	0
1953-54 ..	November 1953 to January 1954.	..	110	0	0	120	0	0	125	0	0
	May 1954 to September 1954.	..	100	0	0	105	0	0	107	0	0
1954-55 ..	November 1954 to January 1955.	..	55	0	0	60	0	0	65	0	0
	May 1955 to September 1955.	..	60	0	0	62	8	0	65	0	0

1. E — Primary wholesale price.
2. C — Secondary wholesale price.
3. D — Retail price.

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Price of regulated commodities.

TABLE No. 17.

STATEMENT SHOWING PRICES OF REGULATED COMMODITIES DURING HARVEST-TIME AND DURING OFF-SEASON IN THE GADHINGLAJ MARKET.

Market Year.	Variety.	Prices during harvest time.					Prices during off-season.				
		Months.	A	B	C	D	Months	A	B	C	D
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Gul.		Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.		Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.	Rs. As. Ps.
1950-51 ..	No. 1	November 1950 to April 1951.	18 0 0	18 12 0	20 0 0	20 8 0	May 1951 to October 1951.	23 0 0	23 8 0	25 0 0	25 8 0
	No. 2.	....	14 12 0	15 4 0	17 0 0	17 8 0		18 0 0	18 12 0	20 0 0	23 0 0
1953-54 ..	No. 1	November 1953 to April 1954	23 12 0	25 2 0	26 4 0	27 0 0	May 1954 to October 1954.	22 8 0	23 [illegible] 0	24 0 0	24 8 0
	No. 2	....	22 0 0	23 0 0	24 0 0	24 8 0		20 0 0	20 12 0	21 12 0	22 0 0
1954-55 ..	No. 1	November 1954 to April 1955.	11 0 0	11 8 0	12 4 0	13 0 0	May 1955 to August 1955.	12 4 0	12 12 0	13 8 0	14 0 0
	No. 2	.	8 0 0	8 10 0	9 8 0	10 0 0		10 8 0	11 0 0	11 8 0	12 0 0

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	[illegible]									
1950-51 ..	No. 1 ..	November 1950 to March 1951.	10 0 0	15 0 0	20 0 0	21 0 0	April 1951 to October 1951.	19 8 0	20 0 0	21 0 0	21 8 0
1953-54	No. 1 ..	November 1953 to March 1954.	13 8 0	17 8 0	18 0 0	19 0 0	April 1954 to October 1954.	16 0 0	16 8 0	16 8 0	16 0 0
1954-55 ..	No. 1 ..	November 1954 to March 1955.	9 12 0	10 8 0	11 0 0	11 8 0	April 1955 to August 1955.	12 0 0	12 8 0	12 12 0	13 12 0
	Chillies. (Dry).										
1950-51 .		November 1950 to January 1951.	110 0 0	125 0 0	130 0 0	135 0 0	May 1951 to September 1951.	135 0 0	140 0 0	145 0 0	160 0 0
1953-54 ..		November 1953 to January 1954.	90 0 0	110 0 0	120 0 0	125 0 0	May 1954 to September 1954.	95 0 0	100 0 0	105 0 0	107 0 0
1954-55 ..		November 1954 to January 1955.	50 0 0	55 0 0	60 0 0	65 0 0	May 1955 to August 1955.	55 0 0	60 0 0	62 8 0	65 0 0

N.B.—Table prepared from the material received from the Gadhinglaj Agricultural Produce Market Committee (Ref. Replies to the questionnaire on Agricultural Price Variations Enquiry Committee).

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Prices of regulated commodities.

As stated in the report of the committee, the price of *gul* in 1955-56 was higher in the beginning of the season at Rs. 14-0-0 to Rs. 16-15-0 per Bengali maund, but afterwards it declined to Rs. 10-0-0 and again rose to Rs. 15-0-0 and remained steady till the end of the season. Prices for groundnut and chillies were low in the beginning but by January 1956, there was an upward trend maintained till the end of the season. Due to this rise in prices, agriculturists as well as traders were benefited. In the beginning of the season groundnut prices were Rs. 9-0-0 to Rs. 10-4-0 per B. Md. and increased up to Rs. 19-2-0 during the season. Chillies prices were in the beginning Rs. 35-0-0 to Rs. C0-0-0 per B. Md. but later on increased up to Rs. 83-12-0. Thus it can be said that there were no major ups and downs in *gul* prices but there was a substantial increase in prices of chillies.

Storing Facilities.

There are no licensed warehouses in this market but there are 80 godowns in the yard out of which only six are built (*pucca*) while the rest are used as godowns for the purpose of storing agricultural produce by the general commission agents and traders, on hire basis.

Local banks help the dealers by advancing against goods at the rate of 44 to 55 per cent. of current market prices.

Octroi Duty.

The municipality levied octroi charges on the regulated commodities brought in the market for sale. The charges were levied at a flat rate of one anna per maund. This rate worked out to :—

	Rs.	As.	Ps.
(1) for one cart load of *gul*	1	2	0
(2) for one cart load of groundnut	1	0	0

Traders and general commission agents in Gadhinglaj market suffer considerable inconvenience for want of a branch office or an out-agency of the Southern Railway in the Peth and have to contact Sankeshwar, nine miles away for transport facilities.

CO-OPERATIVE INSTITUTIONS.

Regulation of markets alone does not secure full significance unless they are served by efficient ancillary co-operative marketing societies. Regulated markets indirectly help agriculturists to secure a fair deal for their produce by eliminating malpractices and establishing healthy trade traditions, while marketing co-operatives owned by the farmers being free from profit motive are expected to be superior to any individual trader in their role as commission agents. It is the policy of the Government to give loans and subsidies to co-operative societies, particularly to the marketing and multi-purpose societies, to enable them to construct godowns for

affording storage facilities to the cultivators[1]. In 1955-56, fifteen societies in the district were advanced Government and project loans to the tune of Rs. 65,171 for the construction of godowns. There were five marketing societies in the district in 1954-55. One more for Radhanagari taluka was registered in 1955-56. Since sale unions at Kolhapur experienced great difficulty in disposing of *gul* in 1954-55, some leading marketing societies decided that they should have more shops for co-operative institutions. Eight more shops of co-operative societies were opened in the Kolhapur Market. The total number of shops opened by co-operative societies was 12 excluding that of Varna Valley Purchase and Sale Union.

The following table illustrates the extent to which co-operative institutions have received the agricultural produce of the total arrivals in different markets:—

TABLE No. 18.

ARRIVALS OF REGULATED COMMODITIES IN CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES FOR 1954-55 AND 1955-56.

Year.	Commodity.	Total Arrivals in the Market.	Total Arrivals in Co-operative Societies	Number of Co-operative shops.	Per cent.
	I. *Gadhinglaj Market.*				
1954-55 ..	(1) Jaggery rawas.	1,50,247	40,272	2	26
	(2) Groundnut bags	13,315	8,820	2	7
	(3) Chillies bags ..	7,5[illegible]7	859	2	11
	II. *Kolhapur Market.*				
1954-55 ..	(1) Jaggery rawas.	24,60,912	2,32,345	2	9½
	(2) Groundnut bags	2,58,460	1,737	2	6
1955-56 ..	I. (1) Jaggery rawas	1,71,927	51,896	2	30
	(2) Groundnut bags	89,826	6,162	2	6½
	(3) Chillies bags ..	15,920	1,775	2	11
	II (1) Jaggery rawas.	26,66,135	3,63,812	12	14
	(2) Groundnut bags	2,87,853	3,205	12	1

[1] (1) Annual Administration Report on the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939 for the year 1954-55, (2) Working of Co-operative Societies in Kolhapur District for the year 1955-56 (Obtained from the Office of Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies). Working of Co-operative Societies in Kolhapur District (Assistant Registrar's Report 1955-56).

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CO-OPERATIVE INSTITUTIONS.

The following table shows figures of arrivals and sales in respect of *gul* and groundnut handled by co-operative societies in the Kolhapur market:—

TABLE No. 19.

ACTIVITIES OF CO-OPERATIVE INSTITUTIONS FUNCTIONING IN KOLHAPUR MARKET (1956).

Name of the Co-operative Society.	Commodity.	Arrivals B. Mds.	Sales B. Mds.
1. Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd. ..	Gul ..	74,072	67,844
	Groundnut ..	798	798
2. Karvir Taluka Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd.	Gul ..	37,596	37,428
	Groundnut ..	1,296	1,296
3. Varna Valley Sahakari Sangh Ltd.	Gul ..	17,249	17,395
	Groundnut ..	2,392	2,349
4. Shri Ram Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society, Unlimited.	Gul ..	10,816	10,816
	Groundnut ..	78	78
5. Radhanagari Petha Shetkari Sahakari Bank Ltd.	Gul ..	72,623	70,552
	Groundnut ..	238	218
6. Sadoli Khalasa Gram Vividha Sahakari Society, Unlimited.	Gul ..	48,975	50,203
	Groundnut ..	46	46
7. Jayhind Gram Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society Ltd. ..	Gul ..	16,361	16,361
	Groundnut ..	...	..
8. Shri Hanuman Gram Vividha Karyakari Society, Unlimited.	Gul ..	18,271	18,271
	Groundnut ..	11	11
9. Jay Bhavani Gram Vividha Karyakari Society, Unlimited.	Gul ..	57,923	57,923
	Groundnut ..	...	...
10. Murgud Sahakari Bank Ltd. ..	Gul ..	31,217	31,217
	Groundnut ..	....	....
11. The Kolhapur Co-operative Wholesale Society.	Gul ..	30,021	30,021
	Groundnut ..	25	25
12. Hatkanangale Taluka Sahakari Kharedi-Vikri Sangh Ltd.	Gul ..	18,960	18,960
	Groundnut ..	2,581	2,581
13. Radhanagari Taluka Kharedi-Vikri Sangh Ltd.	Gul ..	29,708	29,558
	Groundnut ..	...	....

CO-OPERATIVE INSTITUTIONS.

There were only two co-operative institutions functioning in the Gadhinglaj market dealing in regulated commodities. They were: (1) The Gadhinglaj Taluka Kharedi-Vikri Sahakari Sangh Ltd.; and (2) The Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd., Kolhapur Branch, Gadhinglaj. The volume of business done by these two institutions in the capacity of general commission agents is given below :—

I. GADHINGLAJ TALUKA KHAREDI-VIKRI SAHAKARI SANGH LTD.

Commodity	1954–55.		1955-56.	
	Arrivals.	Sales.	Arrivals.	Sales.
Gul rawas ..	38,397	37,267	48,193	48,093
Groundnut bags ..	4,449	4,577	3,213	3,220
Chillies bags ..	544	535	1,740	1,740

II. SHETKARI SAHAKARI SANGH LTD., KOLHAPUR-GADHINGLAJ BRANCH.

Commodity.	1954–55.		1955-56.	
	Arrivals.	Sales.	Arrivals.	Sales.
Gul rawas ..	4,002	3,942	3,392	3,505
Groundnut bags ..	4,110	4,110	2,906	2,508
Chillies bags ..	38	38	100	100

These two co-operative organisations, functioning as general commission agents, rendered good service to the agriculturists. The total average of annual agricultural produce marketed by them in 1955-56 came to 19·6 per cent. of the total arrivals in the Gadhinglaj Market Yard.

VILLAGE SHOPKEEPERS.

VILLAGE SHOPKEEPERS occupy an important place in the organization of retail trade in the villages of a district. Almost every village has one or more shopkeepers who provide the inhabitants with their day to day requirements.

Table No. 19 shows the estimated number of shops in villages and non-municipal towns of Kolhapur district. These shops deal in grocery, cloth, pan-bidi, tobacco, leather-works, stationery and other articles, medicines etc., but a majority of them are grocery shops. Included in them are also a few hotels.

There are twelve talukas and mahals in the district having a total of 1,078 villages and non-municipal towns. Taking the district as a whole, there were four shops per village on an average. It would be clear from the table that Shirol taluka had the highest average number of shops, viz., 28 compared to the number of villages, followed by Hatkanangale taluka where the average was 14 per village. Particular mention may be

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made of following places where there was a great concentration of shops. Udgaon (Shirol taluka)—373, Kagal (Kagal Taluka)—121, Gadhinglaj (Gadhinglaj taluka)—108, Gargoti (Bhudargad taluka)—100, Malkapur (Shahuwadi taluka)—96 and Kale Kasaba (Panhala Mahal)—85.

Except grain which he buys from local producers, the village shopkeeper brings his stock-in-trade from large towns with which he has established business relations and from where possibly he can get credit facilities.

His stock-in-trade includes grain, groceries, oils, *gul*, spices, cocoanuts, washing-soap, tea, tobacco, betelnut, chillies and other innumerable articles, though in small quantities, required by people for their daily use. Articles are purchased mostly on cash but in some cases customers are allowed a running account to be settled periodically. Thus the shop-keeper also in a way acts as a small money-lender. Shop-keepers have usually a place of business in the centre of the village or town. The smaller shop-keeper moves from one place to another within a radius of ten to fifteen miles of his shop to buy and sell his articles.

The following table shows the taluka-wise account of the dispersal of shops in Kolhapur district (1955-56):—

TABLE No. 20.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DISPERSAL OF SHOPS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Name of Taluka or Peta.	Number of villages.	Number of Shops.
1. Ajra	79	144
2. Bavada	76	136
3. Bhudargad	96	261
4. Chandgad	130	172
5. Gadhinglaj	87	375
6. Hatkanangale	46	680
7. Kagal	77	461
8. Karvir	104	331
9. Panhala	101	367
10. Radhanagari	108	193
11. Shahuwadi	130	223
12. Shirol	44	1,244
Total .	1,078	4,587

Note.—Table prepared from the information furnished in the village Index Forms.

FAIRS.

THERE ARE A LARGE NUMBER OF FAIRS associated with important deities and festivals, where considerable quantity of agricultural produce and other articles of daily use are brought for sale.

They provide a temporary common market place for persons attending them and generally last for a day or two but in some places even longer. The number of persons attending them varies from 200 to 50,000 and an average sale ranges from Rs. 35 to Rs. 50,000.

According to the information submitted by the Marketing Inspector, Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris in the district, the number of fairs held annually in the district is about 120. Of these 35 are held in Panhala Mahal, followed by 28 in Hatkanangale taluka. The lowest number of fairs is held in Ajra, Gadhinglaj, Radhanagari and Chandgad, viz., 3, 2, 4 and 3 respectively. In Bavada there are 9 fairs, in Bhudargad 7, in Kagal 8, in Karvir and in Shirol 5 each and in Shahuwadi 11.

These fairs can be regarded as the chief distributing centres, for temporary periods, of articles varying from basic necessaries to luxuries. Besides, the local shop-keepers, itinerant merchants, cultivators and petty shop-keepers from the neighbourhood and pedlars constitute the bulk of sellers. Buyers are usually the residents of the village or town and its neighbourhood and pilgrims from even distant places. The sellers sell different varieties of articles and at the bigger places even luxury articles are sold. Cereals, pulses, vegetables, sugar, fruits, tobacco, betel-leaves, camphor, tea, coffee, cocoanuts, sweatmeats, salt, cold-drinks and *farsan*, etc. are available. In large fairs, usually attended by a large number of persons, luxury articles like ready-made clothes, artificial pearls, beads and an infinite variety of articles besides those mentioned above are offered for sale. Particular mention may be made of important fairs held at Padali (Khurd) in Karvir taluka where the fair is held for one month and at Kolhapur in the same taluka where larger number of persons assemble at one particular place, where a considerable amount of business is transacted which is mostly on cash basis and hardly on barter system.

The table below shows the particulars about fairs held in Kolhapur district (1956):—

TABLE No. 21.

Name of the Taluka/Mahal.	No.
1. Ajra	3
2. Bavada	9
3. Bhudargad	7
4. Gadhinglaj	2
5. Hatkanangale	28
6. Kagal	8
7. Karvir	5
8 Panhala	35
9. Radhanagiri	4
10. Shahuwadi	11
11. Shirol	5
12. Chandgad	3
Total	120

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The following table shows taluka-wise account of fairs held in Kolhapur district in 1956:—

TABLE No. 22.

STATEMENT SHOWING AN ACCOUNT OF FAIRS HELD IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Name of taluka/mahal.	Name of village or town where fairs are held.	Name of the fair.	Number of days for which they are held.	Date on which they are held.	Average turnover (Rs.)	Number of persons attending the fairs.
1. Ajra ..	Ajra ..	Mahashivaratri ..	2	Magh Vadhya 30 ..	4,000	3,500
	Bahirewadi ..	Shri Bahirideo ..	1	Magh Shudha 15 ..	400	500
	Utur ..	Shri Jokamai Mahadeo ..	1	Falgun Shudha 15 ..	2,000	2,500
	Total .. 3					
2. Bavada ..	Gaganbavada ..	.... ..	1	Any Thursday in Kartik month	400	600
	Mutakeshwar ..	Shri Bhairavdeo ..	1	The coming Thursday after Gudi Padava.	120	400
	Tisangi ..	Shri Jotibadeo ..	1	The coming Sunday after Chaitra Purnima.	400	600
	Asadoli ..	Shri Rasaidevi ..	1	The coming Tuesday after the Akshayyatritiya.	500	800
	Borbet ..	Morataidevi .	1	Rath saptami ..	900	1,200
	Palsambe ..	Shri Mahadeo ..	1	Mahashivratri ..	525	700

	Bhui Bavada ..	Shri Khalnathdeo ..	10	Starting from Falgun Shudha 15.	1,125	1,000
	Mangavali ..	Shri Mangoshdeo and Shri Khalnathdeo.	1	Kartik Shudha 15 ..	100	300
	Achirne .	Shri Rasaidevi ..	1	Paush Shudha 15 ..	500	800
	Total .. 9					
3. Bhudargad ..	Tikkewadi .	Bujai devi .	..	.... ..	300	1,000
	Sonarwadi .	Sonarwadi yatra .	1	Any day in Magh Shudha ..	250	500
	Gargoti ..	Jyotiba yatra ..	..	.... ..	700	500
	Barve ..	Shivratri ..	..	Magh Vadya 30 ..	300	500
	Nishnap ..	Shri Laxmidevi ..	..	... ..	300	800
	Patagaon .	Puranti ..	..	.... ..	300	800
	Panchavade ..	Shivratri ..	..	Magh Vadya 30 ..	200	400
	Total .. 7					
4. Gadhinglaj ..	Gadhinglaj ..	Kalbhairaodeo ..	..	Magh Vadya 2 ..	2,000	4,000
	Chinchewadi	Samangad fair of Bhamsasgiri	..	Magh Vadya 30 ..	3,400	6,000
	Total . 2					
5. Hatkanangale .	Herle ..	Peer ..	2	2nd April .	450	600
	Male ..	Bramha Deo .	3	Chaitra Shudha 1 ..	125	300
	Mudshingi ..	Peer ..	2	2nd April ..	125	400

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TABLE No. 22—*contd.*

Name of taluka mahal.	Name of village or town where fairs are held.	Name of the fair.	Number of days for which they are held.	Date on which they are held.	Average turnover (Rs.)	Number of persons attending the fairs.
5. Hatkanangale—*contd.*	Chokak	Jai ubai	2	2nd May	125	300
	Rukadi	Hajarat Raje Bagswarpur	4	Magh Vadya 30 to Falgun Shudha 4.	2,000	2,500
	Hatkanangale	Hajarat Peer	3	Shravan Vadya 11	375	400
	Shiroli	Balam Peer	2	Chaitra Shudha 7	1,625	2,000
	Kumbhoj	Hajarat Khalal Peer	3	Magh Vadya 13	1,750	2,000
	Hingangaon	Hanuman Jayanti	1	Chaitra Shudha 14	125	200
	Halondi	Shri Jain Basti	1	Chaitra Shudha 14	125	200
	Alate	Ramling		Every Monday of Shravan	375	500
	Do.	Dhul Deo	1	Chaitra Shudha 5, 15	125	300
	Do.	Renuka	3	Margashirsha Purnima	2,000	3,000
	Nagaon	Maruti Deo	1	Shravan	100	200
	Vadgaon	Hanuman Jayanti	1	Chaitra Shudha 14	200	350
	Atigre	Maruti Deo	1	Do do.	200	400

	[illegible]	[illegible]	2	Chaitra Shudha 14	3,700	[illegible]
	Narande	Nagnath	3	Magh Shudha 5, 6, 7	220	500
	Khochi	Bhairaoba	2	Chaitra Shudha 5 to 15	2,000	2,800
	Sawarde	Maruti Deo	1	Magh Shudha 12	125	250
	Ghunaki	Mangoba	1	Magh Shudha 13	130	400
	Paragaon	Vithoba	2	Chaitra Shudha 5	130	300
	Ambap	Nagnath	3	Magh Shudha 5	200	400
	Minache	Peer	2	Kartik Purnima	150	300
	Talasande	Peer	2	Chaitra Shudha 6	125	300
	Chavare	Chawarabai	2	Chaitra Vadya 7	200	400
	Top	Bhairoba Deo	5	Chaitra Shudha 1 to 5	200	300
	Total .. 28					
6. Kagal	Nidhori	Bahiri Deo	1	Falgun	450	500
	Kurni	Halsiddhanath Deo	1	Kartika Shudha 11	850	1,000
	Chimagaon	Chimakai Devi	1	...	250	500
	Sangaon	Nag Deo	1	Shravan Shudha 5	250	500
	Vandoor	Hanuman Jayanti	1	Chaitra Shudha 15	135	200

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TABLE No. 22—*contd*.

Name of taluka mahal.	Name of village or town where fairs are held	Name of the fair.	Number of days for which they are held.	Date on which they are held.	Average turnover (Rs.)	Number of persons attending the fairs.
6. Kagal—*contd*	Kagal ..	Gaibi Peer .	5	Kartik Dvitiya .	1,100	1,000
	Kagal .	Laxmi Devi .	1	Falgun ..	120	300
	Sulkud .	Mhasoba .	1	... .	1,100	3,000
	Total . 8					
7 Karvir .	Sangawade .	Narsoba	3	Chaitra Shudha 2 .	85	400
	Padali Kh. ..	Prayag .	1 month	Paush Vadya 9 to Magh Vadya 8.	47,000	50,000
	Shinganpur .	Vishali ..	1	Paush Vadya 30 ..	...	....
	Vadanage ..	Ishwar Parvati .	1	Magh Vadya 13 ..	....	3,000
	Kolhapur .	Trimboli yatra ..	1	Ashwin Shudha 5 ..	...	50,000
	Total . 5					

8. Panhala	Mohare	Bhireshwar Deo	1	Chaitra Vadya 1	60	....
	Kakhe	Bhireshwar Deo	1	Chaitra Shudha 8	40	....
	Punal	Tembalai	1	Chaitra Vadya 4	62	....
	Majnal	Jyotirling	1	Chaitra Vadya 3	38	1,000
	Male	Maruti Deo	1	Ram Nawami	500	....
	Bahirewadi	Bhairao Deo	1	Chaitra Shudha 14	62	....
	Thane	Maruti Deo	1	Chaitra Vadya 30	75	....
	Wadi Ratnagiri	Kedarling Deo	3	Chaitra Shudha 15	1,400	20,000
	Alave	Bhairao Deo	1	May every year	....	....
	Jakhale	Gopaleshwar Deo	2	Mahashivratri	250	1,500
	Japhale	Bhairao Deo	2	Chaitra	75	....
	Waghavde	Maruti Deo and Laxmi Devi	1	Vaishakha	75	....
	Utre	Maruti Deo and Laxmi Devi	1	Vaishakha	....	....
	Injole	Bhairoba Deo Masai	1	Vaishakha	....	....
	Thane	Masai Devi	1	Chaitra Shudha 1	....	....
	Kaneri	Masai Devi		Ashwin Shudha 3	225	....
	Karanjfen	Jyotirling	1	Chaitra Shudha 15	65	1,000
	Manundre	Maruti Deo	1	Do.	63	....
	Yevluj	Bhairao Deo	1	Chaitra Shudha 1	300	1,400
	Padal	Bhairao Deo	1	Chaitra Shudha 1	250	....

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TABLE No. 22—contd.

Name of taluka/ mahal.	Name of village or town where fairs are held.	Name of the fair	Number of days for which they are held.	Date on which they are held.	Average turnover (Rs.)	Number of persons attending the fairs.
8. Panhala—contd.	Asurle ..	Bhairao Deo ..	2	Chaitra Shudha 15 ..	250	1,450
	Rakshi ..	Jyotiba Deo ..	2	Chaitra Vadya 9 ..	225	....
	Satave ..	Maruti Deo ..	2	Chaitra Vadya 13 ..	225	....
	Boragaon ..	Malapa Devi ..	1	May. Once in every 3 years ..	35	....
	Banivade ..	Kedarling ..	1	Chaitra Purnima ..	....	....
	Ghotawade ..	Ghoteshwar Deo ..	1	Chaitra month ..	....	....
	Pohale ..	Vithalai Devi ..	1	In the month of May ..	500	2,000
	Pohalwadi ..	Urus ..	1	In the month of October ..	325	1,000
	Boriwade ..	Ninai Devi ..	1	... ..	....	....
	Avali ..	Kalama Devi ..	1	.... ..	....	....
	Jiur ..	Bhairao Deo ..	1	In the month of October ..	....	....
	Gharapan ..	Kedarling ..	1	Chaitra Purnima ..	125	....
	Kololi ..	Garai Devi ..	1	Kartik Amavasya ..	125	....
	Panhala ..	Sadhukhatai Urus ..	2	In the month of April ..	280	2,500
	Total .. 35					

9. Radhanagari ..	Durga Manwad ..	Vithalai Devi ..	2	Falgun Vadya 12 ..	2,400	5,000
	Tarale ..	Vithalai Devi ..	2	Falgun Vadya 14 ..	3,000	4,000
	Solankur ..	Vankoba Deo ..	1	Falgun Shudha 1 ..	300	1,000
	Waki ..	Vankoba Deo ..	2	Magh Vadya 11 ..	125	2,000
	Total .. 4					
10. Shahuwadi ..	Bambavade ..	Mahadeo ..	1	Chaitra Shudha 12 ..	750	....
	Bhudasgaon ..	Kantheshwar ..	2	Mahashivratri ..	750	....
	Gondoli ..	Jyotiba ..	1	Chaitra Vadya 7 ..	300	....
	Malewadi ..	Malhari Fair ..	2	Chaitra Vadya 1 ..	125	....
	Malkapur ..	Marmai ..	3	Any day in Chaitra Shudha ..	2,200	....
	Kolgaon ..	Jyotiba ..	2	Chaitra Vadya 1 ..	250	....
	Panundre ..	Jugai ..	2	Rangpanchami ..	325	3,000
	Sarud ..	Biroba ..	1	Vaishakh Shudha 3 ..	1,100	....
	Shittur ..	Kalmu ..	2	Paush Purnima ..	1,660	....
	Shirale ..	Khalnath ..	2	Magh Purnima ..	1,250	....
	Virale ..	Kedarling ..	2	Chaitra Purnima ..	1.250	....
	Total .. 11					

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TABLE No. 22—*contd.*

Name of taluka/mahal.	Name of village or town where fairs are held.	Name of the fair.	Number of days for which they are held.	Date on which they are held.	Average turnover (Rs.)	Number of persons attending the fairs.
11. Shirol ..	Ghosarwad ..	Siddheshwar ..	1	Magh Shudha 7 ..	900	1,500
	Khidrapur ..	Kopeshwar ..	1	Paush Amavasya ..	850	2,000
	Narsinhwadi (Shirol) ..			Margashirsha Purnima ..	900	5,000
	Do. ..	Gurudwadashi ..	1	Ashwin Shudha 12 ..	1,250	2,000
	Do. ..	Mahashivaratri ..	1	Magh Vadya 13 ..	2,250	3,000
	Total .. 5					
12. Chandgad ..	Chandgad ..	Mahi ..	1	1st week of December ..	90	1,000
	Do. ..	Deoraotnath Devasthan ..	2	.... ..	400	3,000
	Gholagewadi ..	Dattajayanti ..	1	Margashirsha 15 ..	850	1,000
	Total .. 3					
	Total .. 120					

Note.—Table prepared on the basis of information supplied by the Marketing Inspector, Kolhapur and Mamlatdars in the district.

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VILLAGE SHOPKEEPERS.
Pedlars.

NEXT TO VILLAGE SHOP-KEEPERS, pedlars play an important part in the trade organisation in the rural areas of a district since olden times. The old Gazetteer of Kolhapur narrates: "some of the pedlars are craftsmen, generally weavers and coppersmiths .... other pedlars sell groceries, perfumes, glass-bangles and hardware .... The pedlars sell most of their stock by barter specially exchanging brass and copper vessels for old clothes and laces".

Pedlars even now play quite a fairly important role in the organization of retail trade. There were 18 pedlars in Gadhinglaj taluka, 205 in Kagal taluka, 18 in Bhudargad taluka, 100 in Shahuwadi taluka, 150 in Shirol, 17 in Hatkanangale taluka and 30 in Chandgad taluka. The following four talukas viz. Panhala, Bavada, Ajra and Radhanagari were reported to have no pedlars largely due to inadequate transport facilities and population being scattered over hilly forest regions. However, villagers who formerly used to patronise pedlars now show a preference for periodical markets or established shop-keepers. Even in the days of the old Gazetter every village large or small had its shop-keeper, who dealt in groceries, spices, grain, salt, oil, sugar, molasses and other supplies. Villagers now obtain their daily necessities from the village shop-keepers or bring them from nearby towns or taluka headquarters as transport facilities have improved and progressed much in the post-war period.

Yet pedlars have not disappeared completely from the rural areas. The system has undergone a considerable change. The articles which are now hawked are perishable consumption goods like fruits, vegetables, fish, *kurmuras*, and confectioneries. Cheap ornaments, betel leaves and utensils of china clay are also sold. Cloth, cutlery, utensils, ornaments, glassware, grocery, etc. are generally obtained from established shop-keepers.

Pedlars usually move from village to village in fair weather and generally return to their respective places before monsoon. Their stock-in-trade varies in value from Rs. 10 to Rs. 500. Most of the pedlars belong to the district itself. They usually carry their goods on their own shoulders or engage a labourer. Some pedlars also use hand carts, bullock-carts or cycles, etc. They are usually known to their customers.

There are different types of pedlars handling particular types of commodities. The Kosthi, and the Sali generally deal in sarees, bedsheets, and other hand-loom goods, Mohammedan and lingayat pedlars in cloth, Teli in groundnut and cocoanut oil, Sonars in cheap ornaments, etc. Most of the transactions are done on cash basis though the system of barter prevails in the case of pedlars hawking utensils and glassware which are exchanged with used clothes.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

VOLUME OF TRADE.

VOLUME OF TRADE OF A DISTRICT can be easily ascertained if accurate statistics regarding imports into and the exports from the district are available. Such statistics are, however, rarely available. Only figures about the volume of imports and exports based on octroi returns are available in a few municipal towns. A majority of municipalities in Kolhapur district have not applied octroi rules within their municipal limits; where they are applied, they are either *ad valorem* or specific. Hence either the quantity imported/exported is available or the value thereof but not both. Octroi is usually levied on imports which are generally meant for local consumption. However, the commodities included in the commodity group and octroi levies are not uniform every where. Six municipalities, viz., (1) Vadgaon, (2) Kurundwad, (3) Jaisingpur, (4) Murgud, (5) Kagal and (6) Panhala had not introduced regular rules for the collection of octroi in their areas upto the end of the year 1955-56. Octroi was auctioned to the highest bidder and the recovery of the same was entrusted to a contractor employed by the municipality.

Table Nos. 23, 24, 25 and 26 give figures of exports and imports of various commodities based on octroi returns in the municipal towns of (1) Kolhapur, (2) Ichalkaranji, (3) Malkapur and (4) Gadhinglaj. Because of the limitations already cited, the statistics detailed in the tables may only be taken to indicate broad trends. It is apparent that there was a steady increase in imports in all towns. There was a steady increase in exports of some commodities. The increase in imports might be due to various causes, important among them being the increase in population of the district, in the building and constructional activities in the post-war period and an all-round increase in trading activities as a result of increase in the supply and velocity of money. The tables show that imports of cereals, tea, building materials and cotton piecegoods increased at a greater pace than other commodities:—

TABLE No. 23.

STATEMENT SHOWING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS OF KOLHAPUR MUNICIPALITY.

Commodity group.		1951–52.		1952–53.		1953–54.		1954–55.		1955–56.	
		Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals	Imports	7,54,845	....	4,19,000	....	6,15,830	....	15,39,890	....	13,16,057	....
	Exports	7,090	....	42,821	....	41,868	....	2,04,220	....	3,37,316	....
Sugar	Imports	51,308	....	43,979	....	34,078	....	95,907	....	12,012	....
	Exports	21,924	....	25,777	....	42,059	....	24,520	....	5,775	....
Firewood	Imports	7,56,072	....	8,71,131	....	7,27,836	....	8,70,753	....	9,64,756	....
	Exports	58,882	....	61,267	....	57,107	....	41,928	....	53,971	....
Charcoal	Imports	90,279	....	2,54,665	....	2,31,273	....	2,72,231	....	2,42,817	....
	Exports	11,723	....	2,660	....	12,520	....	12,817	....	16,050	....
Petrol (including Mineral Oils).	Imports	4,62,068	....	2,46,675	....	2,22,112	....	2,41,867	....	4,04,337	....
	Exports	22,375	....	4,590	....	3,228	....	1,920	....	5,089	....
Cement	Imports	....	3,05,619	58,565	....	95,019	....	1,13,530	....	1,33,051	....
	Exports	....	3,67,130	34,653	....	16,258	....	8,604	....	9,136	....
Building materials	Imports	3,74,316	2,05,400	2,46,671	3,70,670	2,15,952	1,41,436	7,39,469	5,21,451	5,86,069	5,40,412
	Exports	43,604	1,75,480	33,891	97,356	21,301	08,214	21,071	1,01,616	21,362	90,993
Cattle goods	Imports	32,085	....	35,932	....	30,294	....	7,64,006	....	8,61,948	....
	Exports	716	....	983	....	1,182	....	34,559	....	21,802	....

TABLE No. 23—*contd.*

Commodity group.		1951-52.		1952-53.		1953-54.		1954-55.		1955-56.	
		Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Tea	Imports	....	18,84,879	....	16,63,360	....	16,97,725	....	20,48,113	....	21,35,585
	Exports	....	11,21,673	....	13,16,538	....	16,27,770	....	12,55,563	....	11,04,743
Tobacco	Imports	9,490	....	7,334	....	9,100	....	5,727	....	3,903	....
	Exports	18,338	....	15,016	....	16,879	....	27,074	....	17,813	....
Piecegoods	Imports	....	71,24,122	....	1,17,06,580	....	66,57,752	....	60,51,978	....	54,31,702
	Exports	....	37,91,545	....	55,81,450	....	35,77,042	....	35,02,755	....	65,80,213
Brass, Copper, Iron etc.	Imports	....	53,23,517	....	12,55,209	....	24,87,673	10,475	25,89,396	10,771	28,81,481
	Exports	....	16,61,966	....	66,817	....	3,88,992	684	3,43,180	824	8,96,433
Kerosene	Imports	4,02,088	....	1,74,376	....	1,84,595	....	2,22,546	....	....	1,02,724
	Exports	22,375	....	7,018	....	10,033	....	....	....	5,859	....
Miscellaneous	Imports	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	....	8,67,135	....	9,34,197	....
	Exports	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	....	49,765	....	88,726	....

TABLE No. 24.

STATEMENT SHOWING IMPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS OF ICHALKARANJI MUNICIPALITY.

Commodity group.	1952-53.		1953-54.		1954-55.		1955-56.	
	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals	1,16,937	....	96,539	....	1,66,067	....	1,20,309	....
Sugar . ..	1,56,224½	..	17,534	....	14,075	....	17,559	....
Firewood .. .	1,38,879	..	1,22,531	....	1,66,098	....	1,83,576	....
Charcoal . ..	15,262	...	10,641	....	15,201	..	21,682	....
Petrol ..	1,733½	....	1,387	....	1,416	....	1,395	....
Cement .. .	....	27,703	...	22,526	....	16,715	....	27,653
Building Materials ..	...	47,032	.	29,552	....	41,465	....	42,325
Tea .	....	3,20,102	..	2,02,963	2,37,964	3,02,374	....	....
Tobacco ..	6,467	....	6,262	....	8,954	4,001	....	....
Piece-goods .	...	7,41,292	....	6,39,649	...	4,84,030	....	5,91,497
Brass, Copper, Iron etc. ..	....	1,36,763	..	1,43,699	....	1,67,657	....	2,14,734
Kerosene . .	6,114	....	8,022	...	6,500	....	13,189	....
Miscellaneous	....	....	....	....	....	1,00,05,315	....	1,07,21,766

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TABLE No. 25.

STATEMENT SHOWING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS OF MALKAPUR MUNICIPALITY.

Commodity group.		1937-38.		1943-44.		1951-52.		1052-53.		1953-54.	
		Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals	Imports	1,00,000	5,00,000	25,000	3,00,000	25,000	4,00,000	26,000	4,00,000	1,85,000	37,00,000
	Exports	50,000	2,50,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,50,000	30,00,000
Sugar	Imports	8,000	72,000	2,000	50,000	2,000	50,000	2,000	54,000	20,000	8,00,000
	Exports	3,000	27,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	15,000	2,00,000
Firewood	Imports	10,000	1,000	10,000	7,500	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	12,250
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Building materials.	Imports	20,000	1,00,000	30,000	1,50,000	30,000	1,50,000	50,000	5,00,000	45,000	2,25,000
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Cattle goods	Imports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Tea	Imports	400	20,000	400	50,000	500	75,000	600	1,05,000	2,000	5,00,000
	Exports	100	5,000	100	12,500	100	15,000	100	17,500	1,200	3,00,000

Tobacco	Imports	15,000	2,25,000	18,000	3,60,000	20,000	20,00,000	20,000	20,00,000	20,000	80,00,000
	Exports	12,000	1,80,000	12,000	2,40,000	15,000	15,00,000	15,000	15,00,000	18,000	72,00,000
Piecegoods	Imports	400	10,000	400	20,000	500	50,000	500	50,000	500	50,000
	Exports	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	Imports	240	1,800	140	12,900	140	20,500	140	20,500	1,100	5,000
	Exports	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Kerosene	Imports	10,000	50,000	600	12,000	700	14,000	700	14,000	12,000	1,44,000
	Exports	...	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Miscellaneous	Imports	1,000	50,000	1,000	72,000	1,000	1,00,000	1,000	1,00,000	1,000	1,00,000
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

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TABLE No. 26.

STATEMENT SHOWING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS OF GADHINGLAJ MUNICIPALITY.

Commodity group.		1954-55.		1955-56.	
		Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals	Imports	2,902	....	68,790	....
	Exports	43,397	....	10,875	....
Sugar	Imports	1,185	....	6,788	....
	Exports	833	....	579	....
Firewood	Imports	13,248	....	59,470	....
	Exports	10,356	....	7,398	....
Charcoal	Imports	946	....	3,611	....
	Exports	40.312	....	1,960	....
Petrol (Gallons)	Imports	1,650	....	10,225	...
	Exports	....	....	....	...
Cement	Imports	....	3,418	....	16,905
	Exports	....	117	....	673
Building materials	Imports	5,298	284	34,328	7,847
	Exports	11,592	6.500	15.375	1,962
Tea	Imports	....	29,346	....	2,26,702
	Exports	....	5,047	....	20,916
Tobacco	Imports	2,727	....	6,748	....
	Exports	175	....	199	....
Piecegoods	Imports	....	68,602	....	1,87,036
	Exports	....	11,589	....	15,558
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	Imports	334	....	1.480	...
	Exports	20	....	39	....
Kerosene (gallons)	Imports	12,102	....	67,254	....
	Exports	20	....	....	....
Miscellaneous	Imports	....	....	....	37,804
	Exports	....	5,611	....	18,783

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Trade.
RETAIL TRADE.

RETAIL TRADE is carried on by a large number of shops located in various towns and villages of the district. Details of shops located in rural areas and non-municipal towns have been given in the section on " Village Shop-keepers " and hence this account deals exclusively with retail trade shops in municipal towns in the district.

There were eight municipal towns in 1955-56 including the two municipal boroughs of Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji. The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 was applied only to Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji municipal areas. In other municipal towns viz., (1) Kurundwad (2) Gadhinglaj (3) Malkapur (4) Vadgaon (5) Murgud and (6) Jaisingpur, the said Act was not applied till 1955-56.

Retail shops, which provide a link between the consumer and the wholesaler, are located in the various wards of the town and to a certain extent cater to the needs of the inhabitants of the localities. The stock-in-trade of a majority of retail trade shops is limited but rapid replenishments are made as and when the old stocks are sold out. The capital investments of most of the shops are also limited. Retailers usually have dealings with some wholesaler in the town itself but not infrequently they have dealings with even bigger traders. Quite a few have dealings with outside merchants particularly in cloth trade. Retail sales are generally on cash basis but goods on credit are also given to some customers whose accounts are settled periodically.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 is administered by the municipal boroughs and all the shops and establishments are required to be registered under the Act.

The following statement shows the total number of shops, registered under the Act in the two municipal boroughs in the district viz. (1) Kolhapur and (2) Ichalkaranji.

1955-56

Municipality.	Shops.	Employment including Employers.			Total.
		Men.	Women.	Children.	
1 Kolhapur ..	4,904	5,663	123	233	6,018
2 Ichalkaranji ..	669	1,058	5	11	1,074

Kolhapur.

As per information furnished by the Kolhapur Borough Municipality, there were 4,904 retail shops of different varieties and sizes which provided employment to 6,018 persons including 123 women and 233 children.

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Kolhapur.

The following table (No. 27) shows the ward-wise distribution of retail shops. From the table, it can be seen that grain and grocery shops (1,014) dominate the picture, followed by sweetmeat and eatable shops (484). These two types of shops provided employment to 1,732 persons. The shops were found more concentrated in wards C and E followed by wards B, A and D.

The next groups of shops having comparatively greater employment were stationery, cutlery and provision stores (311), leather goods and footwear[1] (214), cloth and hosiery (285), pan-bidi and cigarette shops (311), cycle shops (277) and zari shops (237). These shops together provided employment to 1,470 persons. There were other shops e.g. medicines (33), metal utensils (56), ready-made clothes (109), timber (132), book-sellers and publishers (9) and furniture (46). These shops provided employment to 1,332 persons.

Ichalkaranji.

The total number of shops in the limits of Ichalkaranji Borough Municipality was 669 which provided employment to 1,074 persons including 5 women and 11 children. Of these, Grocery shops (116), numbered next to miscellaneous (255) and were dispersed in all the ten wards of the town but many of them were found in ward IX. These were followed by sweetmeat and eatable shops (64), pan-bidi and cigarette shops (50) and cloth and hosiery including ready-made cloth shops (46). These shops together provided employment to 915 persons. Of course there was a wide dispersal of shops of different varieties viz. stationery, hardware, watches and opticals, wood fuel, metal utensils, medicine, leather goods and footwear etc. but many were found concentrated in wards VIII, IX and X.

Jaisingpur, Murgud, Malkapur, Gadhinglaj, Vadgaon and Kurundwad

In these municipal towns the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 was not applied till 1955-56 and hence details regarding value of stock-in-trade etc. were not available. However, a statement of retail establishments for each of the municipal towns was prepared with the help of municipal authorities in these towns.

The total number of shops in Jaisingpur was 402 which provided employment to 1,057 persons including 51 children and 3 women. A greater concentration of shops was found in ward B. It is evident from the statement of ward-wise distribution of different types of retail trade shops that there were no separate shops for selling umbrellas, trunks and locks. *agarbattis*, perfumes, glass, cups, etc. The stationery merchants were found to be dealing in these commodities.

[1] It will not be improper here to state that footwears (Chappals) of Kolhapur are very famous and have a distinct market in the nearby areas.

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Jaisingpur, Murgud, Malkapur, Gadhinglaj, Vadgaon and Kurundwad.

Jaisingpur is an important centre for bidi-tobacco and snuff. There are indigenous establishments preparing snuff from tobacco. The total number of shops selling tobacco was 215 which provided employment to 708 persons. Grocery shops were found in all the wards of the town.

Malkapur is a small town and hence has comparatively few shops. The total number of shops was 166 which provided employment to 320 persons including 43 children. It is evident from the table that shops of only a few varieties were found. Forty-two grocery shops provided employment to 50 persons. Shops selling furniture, agricultural requisites, petrol, petromax, etc., were not found in the town.

The total number of shops in Murgud was 131 located in the four wards of the town providing employment to 218 persons including 17 women and 12 children. There was a wide dispersal of shops in the town.

The total number of shops in Gadhinglaj was 51 which provided employment to 257 persons. There were 210 shops in Vadgaon providing employment to 415 persons including 33 women and 76 children. Most of the shops in the town were concentrated in ward A and grocery shops were found in all the five wards of the town. There was a wide dispersal of shops of different varieties.

In Kurundwad municipal area there were 125 shops which provided employment to 232 persons. A greater concentration of retail trade shops was found in ward III. Dealers dealing in cloth and hosiery were found to be dealing in ready-made clothes also. It was reported that many residents of the town used to buy grains directly from agriculturists, and other requirements were purchased on the bazar-day when it was possible to get a number of articles usually not sold in the local market.

Grocery.

Among retail trade shops in the district the grocery group is the most important. It has the largest number of shops and provides the largest employment. All sorts of cereals and pulses, spices, jaggery (*gul*), oil, ghee, condiments, tea, coffee, indigenous drugs, dry fruits, *agarbatti*, saffron, baking-soda, washing-soda, catechu, soap, cocoanuts, cocoanut oil, groundnut oil and a number of other things are sold in these shops. The value of stock-in-trade of individual shops varies in a wide range, i.e., from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 50,000. The retail shop-keepers in this group get their stock in grains from the local wholesale dealers. The other articles and products are bought from local wholesalers who in turn obtain the same from various manufacturing centres particularly from cities like Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

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Sweetmeats and Eatables.

Next in importance to groceries come probably the sweetmeat and eatable shops especially in Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji. Among the group of shops selling sweetmeats and eatables, some sell only sweetmeats, some sell only *sev, churmura, chivda, ganthia, bhajja, khaman* and *bhusa* a mixture of all these. Some sell sweetmeats as well as *farsan*. There is brisk trade in this form of business at the time of religious festivals. Stock-in-trade of this type of shops varies from 500 to Rs. 3,000.

Pan-bidi and Cigarette shops.

Pan-bidi and cigarette shops are an example of shops having small investment. Sale is always on cash basis. Most of the establishments are one man establishments selling *pan, bidi*, cigarettes, chewing tobacco, betelnuts, catechu and occasionally confectionery. The stock-in-trade is generally obtained locally and sometimes from outside. A large number of these establishments make small quantities of *bidis* sufficient for their own sales. The value of stock-in-trade varies from Rs. 25 to Rs. 500. However, in the shops dealing exclusively in tobacco and snuff the stock-in-trade is considerably large. Jaisingpur is an important centre for tobacco, for *bidis* as well as for snuff. Credit facilities enjoyed by tobacco merchants from wholesalers are generally for three months. Business in this category of shops is generally slack in the rainy-season. Rest of the time it is brisk and particularly on holidays the sales of *pan-bidi* shops are greater than on other days.

Cloth and Hosiery.

These shop-keepers sell all kinds of textiles-cotton, woollen, silk—for shirting, coating, etc. ; sarees, *dhotars*, tapestry-cloth, towels, and various kinds of hosiery. Besides mill-made fabrics, they stock and sell hand-loom and power-loom products. The stock-in-trade of an average shop is usually Rs. 500 but a few large shop-keepers stock goods worth Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 1,00,000. The big shops employ clerks to keep accounts, besides salesmen. Handloom and power-loom products manufactured in the district are obtained by the shop-keepers either directly from factories or from wholesale dealers. As in other cases, the rainy-season is generally slack and sales shoot up during festivals and marriage season. Credit is offered to shop-keepers by wholesalers for 30 days but cash payment is generally the rule for hosiery goods. A majority of shop-keepers purchase most of their requirements of all mill-made cloth through the local agents of various textile mills and sometimes even import goods from Sholapur, Bombay, Ahmedabad and Kanpur, etc.

Leather goods and Footwear.

Footwear and other leather goods such as leather, accessories of shoe-making such as sewing thread, nails, clips, belts. purses, etc., are sold by shops grouped under leather goods and footwear. Kolhapur is famous for footwear (*chappals*) known as "Kolhapuri *chappals*". The value of stock-in-trade of these traders varies from Rs. 800 to Rs. 5,000. Business is generally slack during monsoon and brisk during the summer season.

Shop-keepers under the group "Medicines" style themselves up as chemists and druggists. They sell chemicals of various kinds, foreign and indigenous drugs, medicines and surgical instruments. A large part of the chemicals, drugs and medicines stocked is of a foreign origin and brought mainly from Bombay. Those manufactured in India are brought mainly from their places of production, viz., Bombay, Poona, Baroda and Ahmednagar.

The following tables (Nos. 27 to 34) show the ward-wise distribution of shops in the municipal limits of the following towns:—

Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, Malkapur, Murgud, Gadhinglaj, Vadgaon and Kurundwad.

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TABLE No. 27.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN KOLHAPUR.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer			Total.
							Men	Women	Children	
1. Grocery	241	214	278	137	171	1,041	978	8	18	1,004
2. Fruits and Vegetables ..	1	2	54	..	..	57	18	..	3	21
3. Milk and Milk Products ..	3	2	15	2	6	28	16	..	2	18
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables ..	64	54	199	54	113	484	618	56	54	728
5. Sugarcane Juice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc. ..	4	2	37	1	16	60	23	..	8	31
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes	30	38	178	27	78	351	86	..	13	99
8. Tobacco and Snuff	2	3	16	3	6	30	24	..	..	24
9. Medicine	4	10	18	..	1	33	56	..	4	60
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions.	14	16	185	18	78	311	290	..	38	247

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11. Leather [illegible]	2	11	135	.	58	214	138	.	16	154
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories	26	35	130	16	68	277	178	.	18	196
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods.	3	..	28	.	13	44	38	..	4	42
14. Watches and Opticals	3	4	15	..	9	31	23	..	2	25
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks	.	.	13	4	8	25	..	..	..	..
16. Wood Fuel	32	40	96	28	48	246	76	6	9	91
17. Motor, Motor Cycles Sales and Repairs.	1	..	13	..	4	18	13	..	9	22
18. Cloth and Hosiery	13	16	179	9	68	285	219	9	16	244
19. Ready-made Clothes	5	..	79	6	16	109	78	4	..	82
20. Photographic Goods	.	2	12	..	4	16	9	..	.	9
21. Furniture	1	2	24	6	13	46	35	..	2	37
22. Utensils (Metal)	6	14	25	7	4	56	276	.	..	276
23. Hardware	.	5	13	6	..	24	58	..	..	58
24. Building Materials	..	2	9	..	4	15	25	..	..	25
25. Timber	24	32	45	13	18	132	409	..	..	409
26. Flowers	6	4	9	4	2	25	..	..	..	..
27. Agarbatti, Hair Oils and Perfumes.	..	2	6	4	.	12	78	..	..	78
28. Frame Makers	2	5	12	6	4	29	..	..	..	..

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TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer: Men	Women	Children	Total.
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares	..	13	16	4	..	33	25	..	..	25
30. Cages	..	1	3	.	..	4	4	..	..	4
31. Agricultural requisites	1	..	12	..	4	17	15	..	..	15
32. Zari	34	38	120	36	..	237	437	..	13	450
33. Ammunition and Power	..	..	2	..	9	11	9	..	..	9
34. Waste Material	.	..	13	.	..	13	13	..	..	13
35. Booksellers and Publishers	2	3	4	..	.	9	24	.	..	24
36. Stationery and Newspapers	3	12	25	18	9	67	468	..	..	468
37. Petromax	1	6	12	16	4	39	16	..	..	16
38. Miscellaneous	13	53	101	77	199	443	993	40	4	1,037
Total	546	640	2,142	511	1,035	4,864	5,662	123	133	6,018

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TABLE No. 28.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN ICHALKARANJI.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Ward VI	Ward VII	Ward VIII	Ward IX	Ward X	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1. Grocery ..	8	5	10	2	7	15	2	17	34	16	116	156		3	159
2. Fruits and Vegetables ..	..	..	..	.	..	..	.	..	..	..	.	..	.	..	..
3. Milk and Milk Products ..	.	.	..	1	1	.	..	..	..	1	3	3	..	..	3
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables .	1	2	4	10	3	3	4	11	9	17	64	164	2	7	173
5. Sugarcane Juice ..	..	..	.	.	..	.	..	..	..	.	..	.	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc. ..	.	..	.	..	.	..	3	.	4	..	7	7	..	.	7
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes ..		3	1	10	6	3	1	6	13	7	50	50	..	..	50
8. Tobacco and Snuff ..		.	..	.	.	..	..	..	..	1	1	2	.	..	2
9. Medicine ..	..	.	..	1	.	1	1	2	1	1	7	10	.	..	10
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions ..	.	..	..	..	1	3	1	2	2		9	14	.	.	14
11. Leather Goods and Footwear ..	..	.	..	.	.	..	1	4	1	1	7	7	..	.	7

TABLE No. 28—*contd.*

Shops	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Ward VI	Ward VII	Ward VIII	Ward IX	Ward X	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories ..	..	..	.	1	3	..	1	1	7	3	16	21	..	..	21
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
14. Watches and Opticals ..	..	..	.	2	..	1	..	2	..	..	5	5	..	..	5
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	.	..	..	..	..
16. Wood Fuel . ..	..	4	..	2	1	7	5	6	12	4	41	44	..	..	44
17. Motor, Motor Cycles, Sales and Repairs	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery . ..	..	3	..	..	12	4	..	6	11	9	45	98	..	..	98
19. Ready-made Clothes .	.	..	.	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
20. Photographic Goods ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	3	3	3	..	6
21. Furniture	..	.	..	..	1	..	..	1	5	3	10	26	..	..	26
22. Utensils (Metal) . ..	..	..	..	..	2	3	..	1	..	..	6	8	..	..	8
23. Hardware . ..	..	..	..	.	1	..	.	.	1	2	4	11	..	..	11

24. Building Material	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
25. Timber ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	1	4	11	..	..	11
26. Flowers ..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
27. Agarbatti, Hair Oils and Perfumes ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
28. Frame Makers ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
30. Cages ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
32. Zari ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
33. Ammunition and Power	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
34. Waste Material ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	2	2	..	..	2
35. Booksellers and Publishers	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	4	..	..	4
36. Stationery and Newspapers	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2	3	..	..	3
37. Petromax ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	3	3	..	..	3
38. Petrol ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
39. Miscellaneous ..	8	15	13	18	29	25	5	37	70	35	255	389	..	1	390
Total ..	17	32	28	50	68	65	28	103	172	105	668	1,058	5	11	1,074

TABLE No. 29.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN JAISINGPUR.

Shops	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer.			Total.
							Men	Women	Children	
1. Grocery	13	15	5	9	2	44	52	1	..	53
2. Fruits and Vegetables ..	1	2	2	1	.	6	3	2	..	5
3. Milk and Milk Products .	..	..	..	1	..	1	2	..	..	2
4. Sweetmeats and eatables ..	5	5	7	5	..	22	45	..	3	78
5. Sugarcane Juice . ..	..	1	.	1	..	2	2	..	1	3
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc. .	.	..	.	3	..	3	6	..	..	6
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes .	4	6	6	4	..	20	20	..	..	20
8. Tobacco and Snuff ..	6	163	46	..	.	215	708	..	..	708
9. Medicine	..	..	1	1	.	2	3	..	..	3
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions	..	1	3	.	..	4	6	..	2	8

11. Leather Goods and Footwear ..	..		1	..	.	1	3	.	1	4
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories	2	4	4	2	..	12	15	..	5	20
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods	..	.	2	..	..	2	2	..	..	2
14. Watches and Opticals ..	.	..	..	2	..	2	2	..	..	2
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks ..	Included in Stationery shops.									
16. Wood Fuel	2	3	2	2	3	12	24	..	2	26
17. Motor, Motor Cycles, Sales and Repairs.	.	..	..	2	..	2	2	..	..	2
18. Cloth and Hosiery .. .	..	20	3	.	..	23	59	..	3	62
19. Ready-made Clothes ..	..	2	..	..	..	2	2	..	..	2
20. Photographic Goods ..	..	..		..	..	.	..	..	..	..
21. Furniture	Included in Timber Shops.									
22. Utensils (Metal)	.	1		..	..	1	1		.	1
23. Hardware	..	1	2	..	..	3	6	..	..	6
24. Building Material .. .	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	.	..	..
25. Timber . ..	1	1	5	..	..	7	20	.	4	24
26. Flowers .. .	.	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
27. Agarbatti, Hair Oils and Perfumes.	Included in Stationery shops.									
28. Frame Makers .	.	1	2	.	.	3	3	..	.	3

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Jaisingpur, Murgud, Malkapur, Gadhinglaj, Vadgaon and Kurundwad.

TABLE No. 29—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer: Men	Women	Children	Total.
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares ..	Included in Frame Makers' and Stationery shops.									
30. Cages	..	..	..	.	.	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites .	..	1	2	..	.	3	3	..	..	3
32. Zari	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..
33. Ammunition and Power ..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..
34. Waste Material	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
35. Booksellers and Publishers ..	..	2	1	.	..	3	5	..	..	5
36. Stationery and Newspapers ..	..	1	..	2	..	3	3	..	..	3
37. Petromax . ..	..	1	1	..	..	2	3	..	..	3
38. Petrol	..	.	1	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
39. Leaf Cups and Platters ..	Included in Stationery shops.									
Total ..	34	232	96	35	5	402	1,003	3	51	1,057

TABLE No. 30.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MALKAPUR.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer.			Total.
						Men.	Women.	Children.	
1. Grocery	4	21	8	9	42	50	..	..	50
2. Fruits and Vegetables		.	1	..	1	1	..	..	1
3. Milk and Milk Products	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables	2	4	6	5	17	25	2	15	42
5. Sugarcane Juice	.	.	.	.	.	..	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc.	..	.	..	8	8	16	..	4	20
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes	3	3	3	4	13	13	..	13	26
8. Tobacco and Snuff	4	15	8	4	31	50	..	.	50
9. Medicine	..	1	1	..	2	2	..	..	2
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions	..	10	3	.	13	39	.	5	44

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Malkapur,
Gadhinglaj,
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Kurundwad.

TABLE No. 30—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
11. Leather Goods and Footwear ..	1	1	..	1	3	15	..	..	15
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories ..	1	1	..	1	3	6	..	6	12
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods	..	.	..	..	.	..	..	..	.
14. Watches and Opticals ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks ..	..	3	3	..	6	12	..	..	12
16. Wood Fuel	2	..	.	..	2	4	..	..	4
17. Motor, Motor Cycles, Sales and Repairs	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery ..	.	4	4	..	8	12	..	..	12
19. Ready-made Clothes ..	.	4	12	1	17	30	..	..	30
Total	17	67	49	33	166	275	2	43	320

TABLE No 31.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MURGUD.

Shops	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer.			Total.
						Men.	Women.	Children.	
1. Grocery	3	7	2	12	24	46	12	6	64
2. Fruits and Vegetables	..	3	..	2	5	2	3	..	5
3. Milk and Milk Products	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables	..	3	4	16	23	45	1	4	50
5. Sugarcane Juice	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs etc.	1	..	7	..	8	8	1	..	9
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes		2	1	3	6	6	..	..	6
8. Tobacco and Snuff	..	2	5	2	9	9	..	..	9
9. Medicine	..	..	..	3	3	3	..	..	3
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions	1	..	..	3	4	4	..	..	4

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TABLE No. 31—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
11. Leather Goods and Footwear	5	1	1	..	7	14	..	..	14
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories ..	..	..	1	3	4	4	..	..	4
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods ..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	.	..
14. Watches and Opticals	..	..	..	2	2	2	.	..	2
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
16. Wood Fuel	..	..	3	1	4	5	..	1	6
17. Motor, Motor-Cycles : Sales and Repairs ..	.	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery	..	..	..	13	13	22	.	..	22
19. Ready-made Clothes	..	.	..	2	2	2	..	1	3
20. Photographic Goods	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
21. Furniture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..
22. Utensils (Metal)	..	..	..	3	3	3	..	..	3

23. Hardware			..	1	1	1	..	..	1
24. Building Material	Included in Hardware.								
25. Timber	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
26. Flowers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
27. Agarbatti, Hairoils and Perfumes	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
28. Frame Makers	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
30. Cages	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites	..	..	..	3	3	3	..	..	3
32. Zari	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
33. Ammunition and Power	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
34. Waste Material	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
35. Booksellers and Publishers	..	..	..	2	2	2	..	..	2
36. Stationery and News-papers	1	..	..	2	3	3	..	..	3
37. Petromax	..	..	..	2	2	2	..	..	2
Total ..	11	18	24	78	131	189	17	12	218

TABLE No. 32.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN GADHINGLAJ.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1. Grocery	1	1	1	1	4	71	..	4	75
2. Fruits and Vegetables	..	2	..	..	2	3	..	..	3
3. Milk and Milk Products	..	..	..	1	1	2	..	.	2
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables	1	1	1	1	4	48	6	18	72
5. Sugarcane Juice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc.	..	.	..	8	8	9	2	1	12
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes	..	1	1	1	3	8	..	..	8
8. Tobacco and Snuff	..		..	1	1	2	.	..	2
9. Medicine	..	..	1	1	2	3	.	..	3
10 Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions	..	1	..	1	2	3	..	..	3

11. Leather Goods and Footwear	..	.	1	1	2	10	..	..	10
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories	.	1	1	1	3	6	..	1	7
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
14. Watches and Opticals	..	..	1	1	2	2	..	..	2
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
16. Wood Fuel	.	..	1	1	2	4	1	..	5
17. Motor, Motor-Cycles: Sales and Repairs .	.	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery	..	..	1	1	2	27	..	..	27
19. Ready-made Clothes	.	1	..	.	1	1	..	..	1
20. Photographic Goods	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
21. Furniture	..	1	1	..	2	3	..	..	3
22. Utensils (Metal)	.	..	1	..	1	5	..	..	5
23. Hardware	.	1	1	..	2	6	..	..	6
24. Building Material . ..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
25. Timber	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
26. Flowers	..	.	..	1	1	1	..	..	1
27. Agarbatti, Hairoils and Perfumes .. .	..	..	1	..	1	2	..	.	2
28. Frame Makers	..	.	1	.	1	3	..	..	3
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares . ..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 32—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Total.	Total employment including employer. Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
30. Cages	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
32. Zari	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1
33. Ammunition and Power	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..
34. Waste Material	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
35. Booksellers and Publishers	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
36. Stationery and Newspapers	.	1	1	..	2	2	..	..	2
37. Petromax	.	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
38. Petrol	..	1	.	..	1	2	..	..	2
Total .	2	12	16	21	51	225	9	24	258

TABLE No. 33.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN VADAGAON.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer.			Total.
							Men	Women	Children	
1. Grocery	7	10	3	10	1	31	30	..	8	38
2. Fruits and Vegetables	3	..	..	..	..	3	2	2	..	4
3. Milk and Milk Products	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables	12	1	..	..	..	13	20	5	25	50
5. Sugarcane Juice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc.	8	..	..	..	..	8	10	..	..	10
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes	20	5	2	10	1	38	30	..	10	40
8. Tobacco and Snuff	..	1	..	1	..	2	10	10	..	20
9. Medicine	2	1	..	..	..	3	6	..	..	6
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions.	3	5	..	..	..	8	5	..	3	8
11. Leather Goods and Footwear	2	..	..	..	..	2	5	2	2	9

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TABLE No. 33—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer.			Total
							Men	Women	Children	
12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories ..	4	4	.		..	8	10	..	3	13
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods.	1	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
14. Watches and Opticals ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks ..	2	3	..	..	.	5	5	..	..	5
16. Wood Fuel	2	..	1	1	..	4	8	..	..	8
17. Motor, Motor-Cycles: Sales and Repairs.	.	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery	6	16	..	11	..	33	60	..	10	70
19. Ready-made Clothes ..	1	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
20. Photographic Goods ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
21. Furniture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
22. Utensils (Metal) ..	..	1	..	2	..	3	6	..	..	6
23. Hardware	2	1	..	..	..	3	5	..	..	5

24. Building Material	4	.	..	1	..	5	12	..	..	12
25. Timber	1	..	..	.	..	1	2	..	..	2
26. Flowers	1	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
27. Agarbatti, Hair Oils and Perfumes.	2	8	..	..	..	10	10	..	.	10
28. Frame Makers . ..	..	1	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares ..	2	3	..	..	..	5	5	..	2	7
30. Cages	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites ..	2	2	..	..	..	4	5	..	..	5
32. Zari	1	2	..	1	..	4	4	2	..	6
33. Ammunition and Power ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
34. Waste Material	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
35. Booksellers and Publishers ..	..	1	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
36. Stationery and Newspapers ..	1	1		..	..	2	2	..	2	4
37. Petromax	..	1	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
38. Petrol . ..	.	.	2	..	..	2	2	2	1	5
39. Lead Cups and Platters ..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..
40. Sheep and Goats . ..	1	.	..	..	..	1	25	..	..	25
41. Miscellaneous . ..	3	2	..	1	..	6	15	10	10	35
Total ..	93	69	8	38	2	210	300	33	70	415

TABLE No. 34.

A TABLE SHOWING WARD-WISE BREAK-UP OF RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN KURUNDWAD.

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total	Total employment including employer. Men	Women	Children	Total
1. Grocery* ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
2. Fruits and Vegetables ..	..	1	3	..	..	4	5	..	..	5
3. Milk and Milk Products ..	..	1	4	3	3	11	19	13	..	32
4. Sweetmeats and Eatables ..	2	1	10	6	1	20	28	3	23	54
5. Sugarcane Juice ..	..	..	4	..	..	4	6	2	..	8
6. Mutton, Beef, Eggs, etc. ..	..	..	..	2	..	2	4	..	..	4
7. Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes ..	..	4	8	1	..	13	13	..	..	13
8. Tobacco and Snuff ..	..	..	..	1	1	2	2	..	..	2
9. Medicine ..	..	..	3	..	1	4	5	..	..	5
10. Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provision.	..	..	..	..	4	4	4	..	..	4
11. Leather Goods and Footwear ..	..	..	10	..	..	10	16	..	..	16

12. Cycles and Cycle Accessories ..	..	..	3	2	..	5	10	..	..	10
13. Gramophone, Radio and Electric Goods.	..	1	..	.	1	2	3	..	..	3
14. Watches and Opticals ..	.	..	3	..	..	3	3	..	..	3
15. Umbrellas, Locks and Trunks ..	.	..	.	..	..	..	.	..	.	..
16. Wood Fuel	1	..	3	1	..	5	10	..	..	10
17. Motor, Motor-Cycles: Sales and Repairs.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18. Cloth and Hosiery	..	..	21	..	..	21	42	..	..	42
19. Ready-made Clothes	Included in Cloth and Hosiery.									
20. Photographic Goods	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
21. Furniture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
22. Utensils (Metal)	.	..	3	..	..	3	5	..	..	5
23. Hardware . ..	..	..	3	..	..	3	3	..	..	3
24. Building Material	..	1	2	..	..	3	6	..	..	6
25. Timber . ..	Included in Building Material.									
26. Flowers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
27. Agarbatti, Hair Oils and Perfumes.		..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
28. Frame Makers .. .	..	..	2	..	..	2	2	..	..	2
29. Glass Mirrors and Glasswares ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..

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Kurundwad.

TABLE No. 34—*contd.*

Shops.	Ward I	Ward II	Ward III	Ward IV	Ward V	Total.	Total employment including employer.			Total.
							Men	Women	Children	
30. Cages	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
31. Agricultural requisites ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
32. Zari	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
33. Ammunition and Power ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
34. Waste Material	..	..	1	..	..	1	2	..	..	2
35. Booksellers and Publishers ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
36. Stationery and Newspapers ..	1	2	..	..	..	3	3	..	..	3
37. Miscellaneous	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	4	11	83	16	11	125	191	18	23	232

* Information about grocery shops is not available.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

SALES TAX.

The following statement compiled from the statisticial returns of Sales Tax, under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1946, gives an idea of the volume of business done by big shops in Kolhapur district: —

Since the turnover of most of the retail shops in the district did not reach the minimum prescribed for registration under the Act (Rs. 10,000 in case of importers and Rs. 25,000 in case of others) quite a large number of retail shops fell outside the scope of the statement. During the period under review i.e. 1956-57, there were 1,508 registered dealers and their total turnover amounted to Rs. 30,28,45,000. Looking at the statement, it can be seen that Kolhapur city had the largest number of dealers (714) with a total turnover of Rs. 17,16,13,000 followed by those in Ichalkaranji town (377) with a total turnover of Rs. 4,71,52,000. The statement also reveals that largest number of dealers was found in the group of "clothing and other consumer goods" followed by those in the group of "Foodstuffs and Hotels". But the turnover of dealers in the latter group was more as compared to that in the former There was a wide dispersal of shops registered under "Foodstuffs and Hotels" and "Clothing and other consumer goods" in almost all the areas except Shahuwadi and Shirol. Shops in the groups of "Machinery and Capital goods" and "Industrial Commodities" were found only in Kolhapur city and Ichalkaranji town. While shops in the groups of "Building Materials" and "Transport and Vehicles goods" were found in Kolhapur city and Hatkanangale and Kagal. There were no shops registered in the group of "Fuel and Power".

TABLE

STATEMENT SHOWING NUMBER OF REGISTERED DEALERS AND

(Figures of Gross

	Food stuffs and Hotels		Clothing and other consumer goods.		Building Materials.		Transport and Vehicle goods.	
	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Kolhapur City.	392	1,42,085	249	16,337	6	1,041	26	6,125
Karvir ..	2	..	36	4,243	..	..	..	..
Gadhinglaj ..	51	11,201	27	958	..	..	..	..
Jaisingpur ..	13	3,246	164	23,981	..	..	..	..
Malkapur ..	12	27,722	1	14	..	..	..	..
Ichalkaranji (Town).	29	2,598	340	44,023	..	..	..	..
Ajara ..	6	282	1	103	..	..	..	.
Chandgad ..	4	6	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bavada ..	3	4,850	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhudargad ..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hatkanangale.	29	4,762	30	1,674	..	..	1	83
Kagal ..	5	225	5	174	..	..	1	91
Panhala .	1	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Radhanagari ..	1	77	..	..	..	..	..	..
Shahuwadi ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Shirol .	..	..	24	385	..	..	..	..
Total ..	548	1,97,057	877	91,892	6	1,041	28	6,299

Note.—Table prepared from the statistical information of Sales Tax supplied

No. 35.

THEIR TOTAL TURNOVER IN 1956-57.

Turnover in thousands).

Machinery and capital goods.		Fuel and Power.		Industrial Commodities.		Miscellaneous.		Total	
No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.	No.	G. T. O.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
13	3,137	..	..	21	2,563	7	325	714	1,71,613
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38	4,243
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	78	12,159
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	177	27,227
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13	27,736
1	49	..	..	7	482	..	..	377	47,152
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	385
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	4	0
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	3	4,850
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	.
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60	6,519
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	490
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	3
..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	1	77
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..
.	..	..	..	..	..	.	.	24	385
14	3,186	..	..	28	3,045	7	325	1,508	3,02,845

by the Sales Tax Officer, Kolhapur, District Kolhapur.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

HAWKERS.

Like pedlars in rural areas, their counterpart in urban areas viz., hawkers play an important role in the retail trade of the district. However, organized trading activities due to urbanisation, a product of industrial revolution, and the resultant evolution of shops (big or small), do not give much scope to hawkers especially in towns and cities. Even then they continue to be prominent in semi-urban areas. They sell comparatively cheaper articles usually in every day use, viz. peppermints, sugarcane juice, cheap utensils, toys, *agarbattis*, fruits, sweetmeats and a number of petty articles.

There were 34 hawkers in Kolhapur in 1955-56, a majority of them being found in the "C" ward of the town. Hawkers who sold tea, sweetmeats, *bhel*, etc., were licensed and a licence fee of Rs. 2 each per month was collected from them. However, those who sold *kurmure*, groundnuts, fruits, etc., were not required to take licences. They were found to be doing their business near the railway station, bus stand and theatres.

In Ichalkaranji town there were nearly 100 hawkers in 1955-56. The municipality collected licence fees at the rate of Rs. 2 per annum from hawkers carrying fruits and vegetables on their heads and selling them to customers, Rs. 4 per annum were collected from those who used hand-carts and Rs. 8 per annum from hawkers who used vehicles drawn by mechnical-power, etc.

The following municipalities viz., (1) Murgud, (2) Gadhinglaj, (3) Kagal, (4) Kurundwad, (5) Vadgaon, (6) Malkapur and (7) Panhala reported that there were no hawkers in their municipal limits. However, in some municipal towns hawkers from nearby areas used to come on bazar day or days to sell their goods.

TRADE ASSOCIATIONS.

Trade being one of the principal economic activities of modern times, associations and organisations of traders and merchants play an important role in the community's economic life. A central organisation like a Chamber of Commerce can have considerable influence in as much at it is a body to which different types of small associations are affiliated. The representation given to the central organisation in various economic committees help very much in redressing the grievances facing the mercantile community.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
TRADE ASSOCIATIONS.

In Kolhapur district the growth of trade associations is comparatively recent. The more prominent among them were affiliated to the Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce and are listed below: —

(1) Bhusar Vyapari Association, Kolhapur.

(2) Shahupuri Merchants' Association, Kolhapur.

(3) Merchants' Association, Ichalkaranji.

(4) Merchants' Association, Vadgaon.

(5) Merchants' Association, Jaisingpur.

(6) Merchants' Association, Gadhinglaj.

(7) Merchants' Association, Malkapur.

RETAIL PRICES on 15-5-1955.

The following statement compiled from the Bombay Government Gazette, give an idea of the retail prices prevailing at Kolhapur at the time of compilation of the districts' Gazetteer :—

TABLE No. 36.

RETAIL PRICES CURRENT IN KOLHAPUR ON THE LAST DAY OF THE FORTNIGHT ENDING 15TH MAY, 1955.

Commodities. 1	Variety/Quality. 2	Unit. 3	S. Ch. 4
1. *Cereals* :—			
Paddy	Coarse	....	3 0
Rice	Do.	....	2 4
Wheat	White .. .	....	2 4
Wheat flour	Do.	....	2 0
Jowar	Do.	...	4 0
Bajri	.. .. ..	....	4 0
II. *Subsidiary Food Crops*—			
Sweet potatoes .	.... .	....	6 0
Papaya	.... ..	....	4 0
Groundnut cake flour ..	... ..	.. .	5 0

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
TRADE ASSOCIATIONS.

TABLE No. 36—*contd.*

Commodities. 1	Variety/Quality. 2	Unit. 3	S. Ch. 4
III. *Pulses*—			
Gram ..	(a) Whole ..	....	3 0
	(b) Split (both with and without skin) ..	....	2 12
Arhar (Tur)	(a) Whole ..	....	3 0
	(b) Split (both with and without skin) ..	....	2 12
Moong	(a) Whole ..	....	2 8
	(b) Split (both with and without skin) ..	....	2 0
Udid	(a) Whole ..	....	2 12
	(b) Split (both with and without skin) ..	....	2 0
Masur	(a) Whole ..	....	2 4
	(b) Split (both with and without skin) ..	....	2 0
Kulthi ..	.... ..	....	3 0
IV. *Sugar and Gul*—			
Gul	(a) Sort 1 ..	....	3 8
	(b) Sort II ..	....	4 8
Sugar refined ..	D-24	....	1 0
V. *Oils*—			
Groundnut oil	.... ..	....	1 0
Sesamum oil	.... ..	....	0 12
Castor oil	.... ..	....	0 11
Mustard oil	.. ..	....	0 8
Linseed oil	... ..	....	0 12
Cocoanut oil	... ..	....	0 8
VI. *Fruits, Vegetables and Nuts*—			Rs. As. Ps.
(i) Fruits— Mangoes	.... ..	Per dozen	3 0 0
Plantains ..	.... ..	,,	0 8 0
Oranges .. .	.... ..	,,	1 0 0
			S. Ch.
(ii) Vegetables— Potatoes . ..	.... ..	....	4 0
Onions	.... ..	....	10 0
			Rs. As. Ps.
VII. *Tobacco*	Leaf	Per pound	2 8 0

TABLE No. 36—*contd.*

Commodities. 1	Variety/Quality. 2	Unit. 3	S. Ch. 4
VIII. *Livestock products*—			
Milk ..	....	Per rupee	2 0
Ghee ..	(*a*) Agmark	,,	....
	(*b*) Ungraded	,,	0 6
			Rs. As. Ps.
Eggs .	(i) A Grade	Per dozen	1 0 0
	(ii) B Grade	,,	0 12 0
	(iii) C Grade	,,	....
Mutton ..	Goat ..	Per seer	1 12 0
Mutton ..	Sheep ..	,,	1 12 0
Fowls ..	..	Per dozen	33 0 0
IX. *Condiments and Spices*—			S. Ch.
Turmeric ..	..	....	0 9
Tamarind	....	...	0 12
Dry Chillies	....	...	0 14
X. *Fodder*—			Rs. As. Ps.
Dry Grass	....	Per maund.	4 0 0
Jowar Straw	Karbi	,,	3 8 0
Bajri Straw	...	,,	3 0 0
Rice Straw	....	,,	2 8 0
XI. *Miscellaneous*—			S. Ch.
Salt ..	...	Per Rupee	10 0
			Rs. As. Ps.
Kerosene oil	...	Per gallon	1 8 0
Firewood ..	...	Per maund	2 8 0
Coarse cloth	....	Per yard	1 0 0
Cotton	Cleaned ..	Per Maund	...
Tea ..	....	Per pound	3 4 0
Coffee ..	....	,,	2 12 0
Wheat Bread	....	,,	0 6 0

1 Prices in seers and chhataks (of 80 and 5 tolas respectively) per rupee unless otherwise stated. When quality is not specified *fair average* quality is implied.

2 The statement relating to wholesale prices is not given in the *Gazette* and hence not incorporated in the Gazetteer.

CHAPTER 9—TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
INTRODUCTION.

THE GENERAL CONDITION OF TRANSPORT IN THE 19TH CENTURY in the then Kolhapur State was poor. This may be attributed to some extent to the economic set-up of the 19th century. As villages were looked upon and developed as self-sufficient economic units, means of communication by themselves did not receive any particular attention; hardly any effort was made to make good roads. As the old Gazetteer mentions "Till 1845 when British superintendence was introduced, Kolhapur had no made roads. Of the pathways those that led west down the Sahyadris to the coast were hardly fit for lightly laden cattle and those that went inland were mere beaten cattle tracks." During the rainy season passage across the "inland tracks" was entirely closed and "foot passengers" crossed the rivers in a "broad but shallow and unsafe sugar-pans which yearly caused a great loss of life".

After the introduction of British superintendence in 1845, some progress in making roads was made. Between 1845 and 1854 about 300 miles of roads were made and in 1886 when the old Gazetteer was published Kolhapur had, besides several minor roads, four main lines of communication, the Poona-Belgaum running north-south, and Kolhapur-Amba pass, Kolhapur-Phonda pass and Sankeshwar-Parpoli pass roads running west towards the coast. In 1957 Kolhapur had about 312 miles of National Highway and State Highway and Major District Roads, excluding other district roads (about 143 miles). The Miraj-Kolhapur Railway line was opened for traffic on 21st April 1891.

(G.C.P.) L-C VF 708—35

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
EMPLOYMENT IN TRANSPORT SERVICES.

The following table gives the number of persons engaged in transport and communications in 1881 and 1951 :—

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS IN THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

1881.		1951.	
Category.	No. of persons engaged.	Category.	No. of persons engaged.
Railways ..	...	Transport by Railways .	258
		„ „ Roads .	1,979
Roads ..	1,900	„ „ Water .	50
Canals			
Rivers .	110	„ „ Air	4
Sea		Postal Services ..	201
		Telegraph Services .	7
		Telephone Services .	19
		Wireless Services	18
	2,010		2,536

ROADS CLASSIFICATION.

ROADS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, as in other districts, are now classified according to their importance into four categories, namely, (i) National Highways, (ii) State Highways, (iii) Major District Roads, and (iv) Other District Roads.

National Highways have been defined as "main highways serving predominantly national, as distinct from State. purposes, running through the length and breadth of India, which together form a system connecting (by routes as direct as practicable) major ports, foreign highways, capitals of States, and including highways required for strategic movements for the defence of India."

State Highways have been defined as " all other main trunk or arterial roads of a State connecting up with National Highways or State Highways of adjacent States, district headquarters and important cities within the State, and serving as main arteries of traffic to and from district roads." These are usually maintained by State Governments and are generally bridged and metalled and are completely motorable throughout

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS

CLASSIFICATION.

the year, except that sometimes where there are causeways or submersible bridges, traffic may be interrupted in the monsoon for very short periods. State Highways usually have connections with National Highways.

Major District Roads are roughly of the same specifications as State Highways. These roads connect important marketing centres with railways, State Highways and National Highways.

Other District Roads are also of the same type as Major District Roads, except that they are subject to more frequent interruptions of traffic during the rains. They also serve market places and are generally unmetalled.

The State Highways and in most cases the Major District Roads are constructed and maintained by the State Public Works Department and the cost, unlike in the case of the National Highways, is met out of State funds. The cost of National Highways is entirely borne by the Central Government.

NATIONAL HIGHWAY Poona-Bangalore Road.

The Poona-Bangalore road is the only National Highway that passes through Kolhapur district after passing through Poona, North Satara and South Satara districts. It enters Kolhapur in mile 128/4, after crossing the river Varna and runs south a distance of 28 miles and 7 furlongs and leaves the district at mile 157/3, after crossing the river Dudhganga, to enter Belgaum district In its course in the district it passes through Hatkanangale, Karvir and Kagal talukas.

It touches Kini in mile 132;[1] Wathar in 133, Top in 137; Shiroli in 142; Kolhapur in 145 (T. B.)[2]; Shirgaon in 151 and Kagal in 156.

Going from north to south the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Wathar .	Hatkanangale-Alta-Wadgaon-Talsande-Borpadale road	ODR[3]
Top .	Top-Wadgaon-Bhadole road.	ODR
Shiroli ...	Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad road.	SH[4]
Kolhapur	Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad road.	SH[4]
Mile 146 ..	Kolhapur-Pattankodoli-Hupari-Rendal-Rangoli-Shiradwad-Lat-Herwad road.	ODR

[1] The distance is from Poona.
[2] Traveller's Bungalow.
[3] Other District Road.
[4] State Highway.

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Transport and Communications.

NATIONAL HIGHWAY.

Poona-Bangalore Road.

There is a level crossing over the Miraj-Kolhapur Railway line at mile 145/6.

The work of asphalting the road was sanctioned by the Government of India. The section between mile 130/0 and 150/3 was asphalted by June 1958.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

STATE HIGHWAYS.

Devgad-Kaladgi Road.

This road starts from Kaladgi in Belgaum district and enters Kolhapur in mile 4 and runs in the western direction up to Dajipur on the border of the district and enters Ratnagiri. In its course in the district it passes through the talukas of Kagal, Bhudargad and Radhanagari.

It touches Lingnoor Wadi in mile No. 4, Sonage in mile No. 8, Kurunkali in mile No. 9, Surupali in mile No. 10, Shindewadi in mile No. 13, Murgud in mile No. 14, Nidhori in mile No. 15, Admapur in mile No. 16, Sarvade in mile No. 20, Mangewadi in mile No. 21, Nartawade in mile No. 22, Sulambi in mile No. 22, Solankur in mile No. 23, Radhanagari in mile No. 29, Phejiwade in mile No. 30, Shelap in mile No. 36, Hasane in mile No. 44 and Dajipur in mile No. 46.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of point of junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Mile No. 4/1 ...	Lingnoor-Kapashi road.	ODR
Mile No. 4/2 ...	Lingnoor approach road.	VR[1]
Mile No. 5/4 .	Khadkewada approach road	VR
Mile No. 8/6 .	Hamidwada approach road	VR
Mile No. 12 ...	Yamge approach road	VR
Mile No. 16/4 .	Kolhapur-Vijaymarga-Hanmanta Ghat Road.	MDR[2]
Mile No. 21/2 ..	Nartawade approach road.	VR
Mile No. 21/3 ..	Sulambi approach road.	VR
Mile No. 25/1 ...	Kolhapur-Washi-Parite-Ghotawade-Gaibi road.	MDR

[1] Village Road. [2] Major District Road.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

This road starts from Mirya port in Ratnagiri district and enters Kolhapur at mile 41/3 near the village Amba of Shahuwadi taluka. In its course in the district it passes through the talukas of Shahuwadi, Hatkanangale and Shirol and the Panhala mahal from Amba upto Kolhapur and then north-west upto Udagaon to enter South Satara in mile No. 108. The section between mile 141/4 and mile 145 of the Poona-Bangalore National Highway is common to both. Including this section the length of the road in the district is 66 miles and 5 furlongs. The portion of the road which lies within the municipal limits of Kolhapur city is maintained by the Kolhapur Municipal Borough.

It touches Amba in mile 41/4, (I.B.)[1]; Malkapur in mile 53/3, (I. B.), Shahuwadi in mile 56; Bambavade in mile 62/2; Borpadale in mile 70; Kerale 76; Kerli 77: Kolhapur 82; (T. B.); Atigre 93; Hatkanangale 96; Shirgaon 103; Jaisingpur 106; and Udagaon 108.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Amba ...	Amba-Gajapur road	ODR
Malkapur	Malkapur-Man-Anaskura-Bhogaon-Kale road.	ODR
Bambavade	Bambavade-Pishvi road	ODR
	Bambavade-Shirala road	MDR
	Sarud-Bhedasgaon-Kotoli-Shirala-Shitur road	ODR
Borpadale	Borpadale-Pargaon-Kini-Wadgaon-Hatkanangale road	ODR
Waghbil	Waghbil-Panhala road	MDR
Atigre	Atigre-Ichalkaranji-Takawade-Shirdhon road.	ODR
Hatkanangale .	Hatkanangale-Ichalkaranji road.	MDR
	Hatkanangale-Nej-Kumbhog road.	ODR
	Hatkanangale-Wadgaon-Borpadle road.	ODR
Mile 103 ...	Jaisingpur-Ichalkaranji road	ODR
Jaisingpur	Jaisingpur-Kurundwad-Herwad-Saundalge road.	MDR
	Jaisingpur-Kothali road	ODR

[1]Inspection Bungalow.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE HIGHWAYS.

Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road.

The road crosses the Miraj-Kolhapur Railway line in mile No. 100/3.

The work of modernising the surface of this road is in progress and when completed a part of it will have a concrete surface and the rest a black top.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS.

Kolhapur-Bavada Road.

This road starts from Kolhapur and runs about 20 miles in the western direction upto the village Salvan and then south-west upto Bavada. The road is 34 miles and 4 furlongs. In its course it passes through Karvir taluka and Panhala and Bavada mahals.

It touches Kolhapur in mile No. 0, Balinge in mile No. 3, Donavade in mile No. 4, Kaparde in mile No. 7, Adur in mile No. 8, Chinchwade in mile No. 10, Kale in mile No. 12, Asagaon in mile No. 13, Gharpan in mile No. 14, Parkhandale in mile No. 15, Tisangi in mile No. 18, Salwan in mile No. 19, Nivade in mile No. 20, Mandukali in mile No. 22, Khokurle in mile No. 26, Asalaj in mile No. 27, Palsambe in mile No. 30 and Bavada in mile No. 34.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Mile No. 4 .	Kogil approach road.	VR
Mile No. 6 ..	Khupire-Sabalewadi-Yevlooj road.	ODR
Mile No. 12 ...	Kale-Bajarbhogaon road	ODR

It crosses the river Salvan in mile No. 19 and Rupani in mile No. 28. At both these places bridges have been constructed.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

Kolhapur-Washi Parile-Ghotawade-Gaibi Road.

This road, which is 27 miles and 4½ furlongs, starts from Kolhapur and runs in the south-western direction along the river Bhogawati, and joins the Devgad-Kaladgi road in mile No. 26. In its course it passes through Karvir and Radhanagari talukas.

It touches Washi in mile No. 6, Kandgaon in mile No. 9, Dewale in mile No. 9, Haladi Dumala in mile No. 12, Parile in mile No. 14, Ghotawade in mile No. 17, Shirase in mile No. 19, Awali in mile No. 22, Anaje in mile No. 23 and Khindiche-Vharavade in mile No. 24.

Kolhapur-Bavada Road.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.		Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Mile No. 6	...	Washi approach road.	VR
Mile No. 13	...	Rashiwade approach road.	VR
Mile No. 16	..	Kaulav approach road.	VR
Mile No. 24	.	Karanjphen approach road.	VR
Mile No. 25	...	Kuditre approach road.	VR
Mile No. 26	...	Devgad-Kaladgi road.	SH

It is a fair season road.

Gadhinglaj-Ajra-Savantwadi Road.

This road starts from Gadhinglaj and runs 27 miles south-west till the village Naganwadi on the southern border and enters Ratnagiri district. It passes through Gadhinglaj taluka and Ajra mahal.

It touches Gadhinglaj in Mile No. 0, Gijawane in Mile No. 1, Atyal in Mile No. 2, Madilage in Mile No. 9, Ajra in Mile No. 13, Gouse in Mile No. 21, Dardewadi in Mile No. 24 (T. B.) and Naganwadi in Mile No. 27.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.		Name of the Road.	Class of the Road.
Mile No. 0	..	Gadhinglaj-Mahagaon-Nesan road.	MDR
Mile No. 0		Gadhinglaj-Kadagaon-Mumewadi road.	MDR
Mile No. 2	..	Atyal approach road.	VR
Mile No. 3	...	Inchnal approach road.	VR
Mile No. 4		Ainapur road.	VR
Mile No. 5	.	Karambali approach road.	VR
Mile No. 5	...	Koulage approach road.	VR
Mile No. 9	...	Madilage-Shipur road.	ODR
Mile No. 13	...	Ajra-Ramtirth road.	VR
Mile No. 14	...	Ajra-Polgaon approach road.	VR

It crosses the river Hiranyakeshi, in mile No. 23, over a bridge.

This is a metalled and an all-weather road.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS.
Ichalkaranji-Hatkanangale Road.

It starts from the Hatkanangale town at Mile No. 96 of the "Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur-Hyderabad" State Highway, and runs south-east a distance of 5 miles and 5 furlongs, passing through Hatkanangale taluka. It is a metalled road.

It touches Ichalkaranji in mile No. 0, Korochi in mile No. 3, and Hatkanangale in mile No. 5/5.

There is a level crossing near Hatkanangale. No road crosses it nor is any crossed by it. It is an all-weather road.

Gadhinglaj-Bhadgaon-Mahagaon-Nesari-Adkur Road.

This road starts from Gadhinglaj and runs 13 miles south upto Nesari and thereafter runs 4 miles south-west upto Arjunwadi on the southern border of the district, and enters Belgaum district. The section between Gadhinglaj and Nesari is metalled and the rest is *murum* road. It passes through Gadhinglaj taluka.

It touches Gadhinglaj in mile No. 0, Bhadgaon in mile No. 2, Harali Bk. in mile No. 5, Harali Kh. in mile No. 5/4, Mahagaon in mile No. 6/4, Nesari in mile No. 13 and Arjunwadi in mile No. 17.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road
Bhadgaon .	Bhadgaon-Chinchewadi road.	VR
Mahagaon ..	Mahagaon-Ajra road.	ODR

It crosses the river Hiranyakeshi in mile 2, where there is a seasonal ferry. The road is not motorable throughout the year.

Jaisingpur-Shirol-Kurundwad-Herwad Soundalge Road.

This road forks from the Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur-Hyderabad road (State Highway) at mile No. 106/3 and runs south-south-east upto Kurundwad and then south-west upto village Ghosarwad Titha on the eastern boundary of the district and enters Belgaum district. The length of the road in the district is 12 miles and 6 furlongs. A section of the road of 4 miles between Jaisingpur and Shirol is metalled and the rest is *murum* road. It passes through Shirol taluka only.

It touches Jaisingpur in Mile No. 0, Shirol in Mile No. 4, Kurundwad in Mile No. 8, Terwad in Mile No. 11, Herwad in Mile No. 115 and Ghosarwad Titha in Mile No. 12/5.

It neither crosses any road nor does any road emanate from it. It crosses the river Panchaganga in mile No. 7 where there is a causeway. Communication along this road is stopped during monsoon. It is an all weather road upto Shirol and a fair weather road beyond it.

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MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS.

Bambavade-Shirale Road.

This road forks from the "Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur-Hyderabad" road (S. H.) at the village Bambavade and runs north upto the village Sarud and then runs north-west upto the village Kapshi, and leaves the district to enter North Satara. It passes through Shahuwadi taluka only

The length of the road in the district is 8 miles and 1 furlong.

It touches Bambavade in Mile No. 0, Sarud in Mile No. 2/5 and Kapshi Mile No. 6/0.

It crosses the river Kadvi in mile No. 2, where there is a ferry service.

The section of the road between Bambavade and Sarud is M. D. R. and that from Sarud onwards is O. D. R. The road is not motorable throughout the year.

Gargoti-Akurde-Patgaon-Hanmantwadi Road.

This road, which is 27 miles and 1 furlong, starts from Gargoti and runs south-west upto Hanmantwadi on the southern border of the district. It passes through Bhudargad taluka only.

It touches Gargoti[1], Akurde, Shengaon, Karadwadi, Pacharde. Donvade, Nitwade, Kadgaon, Tirawade, Anapwadi, Anturli, Patagaon, Tambyachiwadi and Hanamante.

It neither crosses any road nor does any road emanate from it. The road is metalled upto Patgaon and the rest is a *kacha* road. It crosses the river Vedganga near Gargoti and Patgaon. At Gargoti a bridge was recently constructed. The road is not motorable throughout the year.

Bhadgaon-Channekapi-Nool-Basarge-Halkarni-Khanapur Road.

This road starts from Bhadgaon, a village on the "Gadhinglaj-Bhadgaon-Mahagaon-Nesri-Adkur" road (M. D. R.), and runs in the eastern direction upto Nool and then south-east upto Halkarni on the eastern border and thereafter runs in the eastern direction upto Khanapur in Bijapur district. It passes through Gadhinglaj taluka and is about 10 miles long. It is a *kacha* road, motorable in fair season only. and touches Bhadgaon,[2] Nool. Kasba, Halkarni, Basarge Bk. and Khanapur.

Neither does any road emanate from it nor is any crossed by it.

Chandgad-Shirgaon Road.

The Chandgad-Shirgaon Road emanates from Vengurla-Belgaum-Bagalkot road (State Highway) from Mile No. 54 and runs in the south-west direction. It covers in all 1·43 miles in the district and is maintained by the District Local Board. Kolhapur

[1] This is the proposed description of the road, according to the Nagpur Plan. No continuous mileage from Gadhinglaj was available.

[2] No continuous mileage from Bhadgaon was available.

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Transport and Communications.
MAJOR DISTRICT ROAD.
Chandgad-Shirgaon Road.

It does not cross any river. It touches Chandgad in Mile No. 2. It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Karve-Patne Road.

This road emanates from Vengurla-Belgaum-Bagalkot Road (State Highway) from Mile No. 63 and runs in the south-west direction. Its length is eight miles in this district and joins Parla-Ramghat Road (O.D.R.) It is maintained by the District Local Board, Kolhapur.

It touches Patne in Mile No. 8. It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Chandgad-Parle Road.

Chandgad-Parle Road starts from Chandgad and joins Parle-Ramghat Road. It runs upto Here in the southern direction and then goes to the south-east till Parle. It covers in all 6·25 miles in this district. It is a metalled road and is maintained by the District Local Board, Kolhapur.

It touches Here in Mile No. 5 and crosses the Tamraparni river in Mile No. 1. There is no bridge over the river. It is a fair weather road and has a ferry across the river at Mile No. 1.

Nanagnwadi-Adkur Road

This road emanates from Vengurla-Belgaum-Bagalkot Road (State Highway) from Mile No. 55 and runs in the north-east direction. It covers in all seven miles in the district out of which one furlong is metalled and the remaining (6·88 miles) is a *murum* road. It is maintained by the District Local Board, Kolhapur. The following villages are touched by the road in its stretch :—

(1) Salawane in Mile No. 3.

(2) Asagoli in Mile No. 6.

(3) Adkur in Mile No. 7.

The road is crossed by the Ghatprabha river in Mile No. 7 and there is no bridge. A ferry service is maintained in the monsoon.

OTHER DISTRICT ROADS.

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT gives details of "Other District Roads" in charge of the District Local Board, Kolhapur:—

TABLE No 2.

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT—OTHER DISTRICT ROADS.

Name of the Road.	Starting Point.	Ending Point.	Total Length.		Metalled Length.		Un-metalled Length.		Major road to which it approaches or crosses.
			M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Shahuwadi taluka.									
1. Pishavi-Kapashi Road ..	Maruti Temple ..	Kapashi	8	1	8	1	..	..	Crosses Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road; Mile 3/2 portion is included in Major District Road as per approved road planning of this District.
2. Malkapur-Anuskura Road ..	Malkapur ..	Anuskura ..	20	0	..	..	20	0	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
3. Kerle-Kotoli-Nandgaon Road ..	Kerle	Nandgaon ..	18	2	9	2	9	0	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
4. Bajarbhogaon-Anskura Road ..	Bajarbhogaon ..	Ansk ura ..	1	0	..		1	0	Starts from Bhogavati River.
5. Amba-Gajapur-Vishalgad Road..	Amba ..	Vishalgad ..	11	6	..	..	11	6	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
Hatkanangale taluka.									
6. Hatkanangale-Borpadale Road	Hatkanangale ..	Borpadale	23	7	23	7	..	..	Crosses Poona-Bangalore Road at mile No. 132/7.
7. Hatkanangale-Kumbhoj Road ..	Hatkanangale ..	Kumbhoj ..	5	0	5	0	..	..	....
8. Atigre-Ichalkaranji ..	Atigre ..	Ichalkaranji	7	1	7	1	..	..	Approaches Miraj-Bijapur Road.
9.* Top-Shigaon Road ..	Top ..	Shigaon ..	6	5	6	5	..	..	Approaches Poona-Bangalore Road.

CHAPTER 9.
Transport and Communications.
OTHER DISTRICT ROADS.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of the Road.	Starting Point.	Ending Point.	Total Length.		Metalled Length.		Un-metalled Length.		Major road to which it approaches or crosses.
			M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Panhala peta.									
10. Waghabil-Masudmale-Kodoli Road.	Waghbil ..	Kodoli ..	5	3	4	..	1	3	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
11. Kale-Bajarbhogaon Road ..	Kale ..	Bajarbhogaon ..	6	4	6	4	..	..	Starts from Mile No. 12/6 of Kolhapur-Gaganbavada Road.
Karvir taluka.									
12. Ambewadi-Prayag Road ..	Ambewadi ..	Prayag ..	2	2	2	2	..	..	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
13. Kolhapur-Rendal Jangamwadi Road.	Tembalai Temple	Jangamwadi ..	16	6	14	0	2	6	Starts from Poona-Bangalore Road.
14. Khupira-Sablewadi-Thane-Katbhogaon Road.	Khupira ..	Kalbhogaon ..	12	0	..	..	12	0	Approaches Kolhapur-Gaganbavda Road in Mile No. 4/6.
15. Kerli-Wadi-Ratnagiri Road ..	Kerli ..	Wadi-Ratnagiri ..	6	6	6	6	.	.	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
16.* Bakaredoh-Vadange-Nigave Road.	Bakaredoh ..	Nigave ..	2	6	2	2	0	4	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj Bijapur Road in Mile No. 79/3.
Shirol taluka.									
17. Shirol-Narsinhawadi Road .	Shirol ..	Narsinhawadi ..	4	0	4	0	..	.	....
18. Ichalkaranji-Lat Road .	Ichalkaranji ..	Lat ..	3	3	1	7	1	4	....
19. Ichalkaranji-Chipri Road .	Ichalkaranji ..	Chipri ..	5	6	5	6	..	..	Approaches Ratnagiri-Miraj-Bijapur Road.
20. Jaisingpur-Danoli Road ..	Jaisingpur ..	Danoli .	4	2	..	..	4	2	....

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Transport and Communications.
OTHER DISTRICT ROADS.

Bavda taluka.									
21. Vabhave-Umbarde Road ..	Vabhave	Umbarde	5	2	..	..	5	2	....
22. Lore-Achirne-Khambale Yedgaon Road.	Lore ..	Yedgaon .	7	0	..	..	7	0	....
23. Ringewadi-Tithavali Road .	Ringewadi ..	Tithavali ..	12	3	..	..	12	3	....
Kagal taluka									
24. Lingnur-Kapashi Road ..	Lingnur ..	Kapashi ..	5	6	5	6	..	..	Starts from Nipani-Phonda Ghat Road in Mile No. 4.
Bhudargad taluka.									
25. Kur-Korwade-Akurde Road ..	Kur .	Akurde ..	6	6	..	..	6	6	Starts from Vijay Marga-Hanmanta Road in Mile No. 25 and joins the same in Mile No. 33/1.
Ajra taluka.									
26. Ajra-Mahagaon Road ..	Ajra ..	Mahagaon ..	10	3	..	..	10	3	Approaches Sankeshwar-Amboli-Road in Mile No. 24.
27. Madilge-Shipur Road ..	Madilge	Shipur .	18	5	18	5	..	..	Starts from Poona-Bangalore Road in Mile No. 175 and approaches Sankeshwar-Amboli Ghat Road in Mile No. 18.
Chandgad taluka.									
28. Patne Ramghat Road .	Patne .	Ramghat	9	2	..	..	9	2	....
29. Uchagaon-Kowad Road ..	Uchagaon .	Kowad ..	3	4	3	4	..	..	...

* This road starts in Hatkanangale taluka but terminates at Shegaon in Jath taluka in South Satara.

The table below shows the statistics of roads within municipal limits:—

TABLE No. 3.

STATISTICS OF MUNICIPAL ROADS IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Name of the Municipality.	Type of Roads.													
	Concrete		Asphalt		Metalled.		Unmetalled.		Paved.		Kacha.		Total.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Ichalkaranji ..	..	.	..	..	6	4	8	2	..	..	..	..	14	6
Malkapur ..	.	..	..	..	0	4	3	6½	.	..	..	..	4	2½
Murgud ..	.	.	..	..	1	..	4	2	..	..	..	..	5	2
Kagal ..	..	.	..	..	1	4	5	..	..	..	..	..	6	4
Jaisingpur .	..	.	..	..	3	..	4	1½	..	..	..	..	7	1½
Kurundwad .	..	..	.	..	1	..	7	.	..	..	..	..	8	..
Kolhapur ..	.	.	16	3½	43	4½	33	7	5	3	..	..	99	2
Panhala .	..	..	..	..	7	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	8	..
Gadhinglaj ..	.	.	..	.	.	..	9	..	..	..	.	..	9	..
Wadgaon ..	..	..	..	..	3	.	2	4	..	..	..	.	5	4
Total ..	..	..	16	3½	67	½	78	7	5	3	.	..	167	6

M = Mile F = Furlong.

TABLE No. 4.

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT—STATISTICS OF ROAD MILEAGE.

Category.	Metalled.		Unmetalled.		Total.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
1. Public Works Department Roads.	87	0	28	5	115	5
2. District Local Board Roads	409	0	305	6	714	6
3. Municipal Roads ..	83	4	84	2	167	6
Total ..	579	4	418	5	998	1

Thus the proportion of road mileage to the total area and population comes to about 3·188 sq. miles and 1,308 persons per mile respectively

Statistics of Vehicles in Municipal Areas.

Table below gives the number of vehicles plying in the municipal towns. The various types of vehicles are divided among six categories distinguished from each other by the nature of the motive power used for their locomotion :—

TABLE No. 5.

VEHICLES PLYING WITHIN MUNICIPAL LIMITS—KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Name of the Municipality.	Motors.	Motor cycles.	Cycles.	Bullock Carts	Tongas.	Others.	Total
1	Ichalkaranji ..	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	
2	Malkapur ..	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	
3	Murgud ..	7		105	101	7		220
4	Kagal ..	8	..	300	200		3	511
5	Panhala ..	16	..	..	2	2	..	20
6	Kurundwad ..	13	1	325	..	..	..	339
7	Jaisingpur ..	21	12	535	81	10	75	734
8	Kolhapur ..	..	..	..	453	117	188	758
9	Gadhinglaj ..	57	6	200	180	..	..	443
10	Vadgaon ..	21	4	300	100	..	..	425
	Total ..	143	23	1,765	1,117	136	266	3,450

Bridges.

The following table gives discription of bridges in charge of Public Works Department and District Local Board, Kolhapur:—

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BRIDGES.

TABLE No. 6.

STATEMENT OF BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS IN CHARGE OF PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT AND DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD, KOLHAPUR.

Name of the Road and River.	Mile No.	Name of the nearing village or town.	Type of construction.	Average height.	Length.	Breadth.	Cost of construction.	Year of construction.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Public Works Department							Rs.	
1. Poona-Bangalore Road, Panchaganga River.	142/6	. . .	Girdered steel bridge ..	..	472′-6″	..	..	..
2. Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj Road, Kadvi river.	42/5	. .	Stone masonry arched bridge.	..	..	..	..	..
3. Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj Road, Shali river.	53/2	....	Stone masonry arched bridge.	..	..	..	..	..
4. Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj Road, Bambavada Nalla.	62/2	. . .	Stone masonry arched bridge	..	..	..	..	..
5. Mirya-Ratnagiri Kolhapur Miraj Road Panchaganga river.	81/1	....	Stone masonry arched bridge.	..	..	.	..	..
6. Vengurla-Belgaum-Bagalkot-Bellari Road, Ghatprabha river.	47/8	..	Iron Girdered bridge ..	..	126′	..	..	..
7. Vengurla-Belgaum-Bagalkot-Bellari Road Tamraparni river.	60/8	. .	Iron Girdered bridge ..	..	210′	..	.	..

District Local Board.								
8. Wathar-Borpadale Road ..	3/1	.	R. C. C. bridge ..	.	108′	20	..	..
9. Wathar-Borpadale Road, Nalla ..	10/4	...	Do. ..	..	132	20′	.	..
10. Nipani-Phonda Ghat Road ..	5/4	...	Rolled steel girder ..	..	100′	18′	..	..
11. Nipani-Phonda Ghat Road, Vedganga river.	15/1	...	Masonry arched bridge .	..	240′	18′	86,096	1,906
12. Nipani-Phonda Ghat Road, Dudhaganga river.	21	...	Rolled steel girder .	.	150′	18′	..	..
13. Sankeshwar-Ambodi Ghat Road, Mutnal Nalla.	3/5	...	Masonry arched bridge .	..	100′	18′	..	..
14. Sankeshwar-Ambodi Ghat Road, Hiranyakeshi river.	23/4		....	..	250′	21′	96,372	1,889
15. Kolhapur-Gaganbavada Road, Bhogawati river.	5/1	...	Masonry bridge ..		300′	18′	..	..
16. Kolhapur-Hanmanta Ghat Road, Vedganga river.	27/4	...	Masonry bridge ..	..	200′	20′	17,385	1936
*17. Satamari-Rajarampuri Road, Gomati Nalla.	....	...	R. C. C. Bridge ..	..	..	..	95,493	1954
*18. Sathamari-Rajarampuri Road, Jayanti Nalla.	...	....	R. C. C. Bridge ..	..	..	..	98,870	1954
*19. ———— Panchaganga River ..	..	Ichhalkaranji	....	..	450′	..	0,89,568	..
20. Kolhapur-Padgaon Road, Dudhaganga River.	...	Kasarwada ..	...	.	330′	..	2,39,894	..
*21. Kolhapur-Gangabavade Road, Salvan River.	....	....	....	..	169′	..	2,24,023	..

* These bridges are constructed by the Public Works Department, Kolhapur Division.

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FERRIES.

ALL THE FERRIES IN THE DISTRICT are in charge of the District Local Board, Kolhapur. Of the 67[1] ferries in the district only nine are perennial and the rest are seasonal. The latter operate only in the rainy-season ; generally, the rivers are easily fordable during the rest of the year.

Of the perennial ferries, the one at Ichalkaranji on the river Panchaganga is by far the most important, carrying every day about 200 persons and goods worth about Rs. 5,000 and yields to the Local Board an annual income of about Rs. 7,000. The second important perennial ferry is at Narsinhawadi on the confluence of the rivers Krishna and Panchaganga. It carries on an average 500 persons a day and yields an annual income of about Rs. 6,000.

Among the seasonal ferries the one at Kasarwada is the most important. It carries on an average, about 100 persons and goods worth about Rs. 1.000 per day and yields about Rs. 15,000 a year to the Local Board. Another important seasonal ferry is at Arjunwad on the river Krishna. It carries every day about 200 persons and goods worth about Rs. 500, and yields about Rs. 1,100 every year.

The following table gives the location and other details, of all the ferries in the district:—

[1] Table below shows 68 ferries. This is because the perennial ferry at Narsinhawadi on the confluence of Krishna and Panchaganga is shown twice.

TABLE No. 7

LIST OF FERRIES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT IN 1954, IN CHARGE OF THE DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD, KOLHAPUR.

Serial No.	Location of the Ferry. Name of the Village	Location of the Ferry. Name of the River.	Whether perennial or seasonal.	Utility of Ferry. No. of persons who cross the river by ferry boat per day.	Utility of Ferry. Value of goods transported from one bank to another per day.	Size of the Ferry.	Average income of the ferry in 1954-55.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Karvir	*Taluka.*			Rs.		Rs.
1	Sadoli ..	Bhogawati ..	Seasonal ..	200	5,000 to 10,000	23′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	100
2	Beed ..	Tulshi ..	Do. ..	300	5,000 to 10,000	Do. ..	60
3	Sangrul ..	Kumbhi ..	Do. ..	200	....	Do. ..	10
4	Chaye ..	Dudhaganga ..	Do. ..	100	5,000	23′ × 9′ × 3½′ ..	26
5	Korli ..	Kasari ..	Perennial ..	400	....	23′ × 10½′ × 3′ ..	80
6	Shiye ..	Panchaganga ..	Do. ..	300	....	23′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	110
	Panhala	*Mahal.*					
7	Sawarde ..	Kumbhi ..	Do. ..	400	...	23′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	25
8	Punal ..	Kasari .	Do.	200	500	Do. ..	70
9	Pat-Panhala .	Do. ..	Seasonal ..	100	500	Do. ..	27

TABLE No. 7—*contd.*

Serial No.	Location of the Ferry.		Whether perennial or seasonal.	Utility of Ferry.		Size of the Ferry.	Average income of the ferry in 1954-55.
	Name of the Village.	Name of the River.		No. of persons who cross the river by ferry boat per day.	Value of goods transported from one bank to another per day.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Panhala	*Mahal*—contd.			Rs.		Rs.
10	Bajar-Bhogaon .	Kasari ..	Seasonal ..	100	....	23′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	115
11	Gote ..	Kumbhi ..	Do. ..	300	....	Do. ..	130
12	Waghave ..	Kasari ..	Perennial ..	150	....	23′ × 10½′ × 3′ ..	30
13	Padal ..	Do. ..	Seasonal ..	400	....	Do. ..	45
14	Kodoli ..	Varna ..	Do. ..	400	....	Do. ..	27
	Radhanagiri	*Taluka.*					
15	Rashivade ..	Bhogawati ..	Seasonal ..	150	1,000	23′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	150
16	Yelwade ..	Do. ..	Do. .	100	500	Do. ..	50
17	Tarale ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	100	500	Do. ..	250
18	Piral ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	80	200	Do. ..	26
19	Walve ..	Dudhaganga ..	Do. ..	100	1,000	Do. ..	110
20	Kasarwada .	Do. ..	Do. ..	100	1,000	34′ × 11′ × 3½′ ..	1,555
21	Turambe ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	100	100	18′ × 7½′ × 3′ ..	42

	Bhudargad	*Taluka.*								
22	Mhasve ..	Vedganga ..	Do. ..	100	....	23′	11′	3½′	..	620
23	Shengaon ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	80	400	24¼′	11′	3′	..	40
24	Sheloli ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	70	....	23′	11′	3½′	..	15
25	Mamadapur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	70	....	18′	8′	3′	..	35
26	Gargoti ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	2,000	30¾′	11½′	3½′	..	400
	Gadhinglaj	*Taluka.*								
27	Nesari ..	Ghataprabha ..	Seasonal ..	400	800	25′	11′	3½′	..	500
28	Bhadgaon ..	Hiranyakeshi ..	Do. ..	200	3,000	34′	12′	3½′	..	210
29	Mahagaon ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	500	400	24′	11′	3½′	..	150
30	Harali ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	400	23′	11′	3½′	..	100
31	Hitni ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	400	23′	11′	3½′	..	46
32	Jarali ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	500	25′	11′	3½′	..	175
33	Nilji ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	400	500	18′	3′	3′	..	300
34	Koulge ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	300	500	24′	4′	2½′	..	27
	Ajra	*Mahal.*								
35	Salgaon ..	Hiranyakeshi ..	Seasonal ..	250	200	23′	11′	3½′	..	30
36	Gajargaon ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	100	18′	3′	2½′	..	15
37	Bhadvan ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	250	150	17′	7′	3′	..	5
38	Medhewadi ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	100	17′	4′	3′	..	2
39	Kowadi ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	100	17′	4′	3′	..	0

TABLE No. 7—*contd.*

Serial No.	Location of the Ferry.		Whether perennial or seasonal.	Utility of Ferry.		Size of the Ferry.	Average income of the ferry in 1954-55.
	Name of the Village.	Name of the River.		No. of persons who cross the river by ferry boat per day.	Value of goods transported from one bank to another per day.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Kagal	*Taluka.*			Rs.		Rs.
40	Bhadgaon ..	Vedganga ..	Seasonal ..	200	500	23′ 11′ 3½′ ..	100
41	Chikhali ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	300	500	25′ 12′ 3¼′ ..	55
42	Sidhanerli ..	Dudhaganga ..	Do. ..	500	1,000	18½′ 8¼′ 2¼′ ..	70
43	Anur ..	Vedganga .	Do. ..	200	500	22¼′ 9½′ 3¼″ ..	40
44	Sulkud ..	Dudhaganga ..	Do. ..	200	500	23′ 11′ 3½′ ..	100
	Shirol	*Taluka.*					
45	Narsinhawadi ..	Krishna and Panchaganga.	Perennial ..	500	....	23′ 9′ 3½′ ..	4,980
46	Nandani ..	Panchaganga .	Do. ..	50	....	28′ 11′ 3¼′ ..	26
47	Hasur .	Krishna ..	Seasonal	50	....	28′ 11′ 3½′ ..	91
48	Ghalwad .	Do. ..	Do. ..	25	....	28′ 11′ 3½′ ..	35
49	Arjanwad ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	....	24′ 9½′ 3½′ ..	1,125
50	Kothali ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200	....	24′ 11′ 3½ ..	515

51	Dattawad ..	Dudhaganga .	Do. ..	500	....	23′	11′	3½′	360
52	Danwad ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	100	..		Do.		140
53	Kanwad ..	Krishna ..	Do. .	50	....		Do.		110
	Hatkanangale Taluka.								
54	Ichalkaranji ..	Panchaganga ..	Perennial ..	200	5,000	23′	11′	3½′	7,530
55	Chandur .	Do. ..	Seasonal .	150	....		Do.		362
56	Rukadi ..	Do. ..	Perennial ..	100	....		Do.		250
57	Kochi ..	Warna .	Seasonal .	50	....	23′	9′	3½′	40
	Shahuwadi Taluka.								
58	Kadave ..	Kadavi ..	Seasonal .	40	....	23′	10½′	3′	45
59	Perid ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	40	....		Do.		180
60	Shirgaon Sambu	Do. .	Do. ..	40	...		Do.		355
61	Kapshi ..	Warna ..	Do. ..	150	....	17′	7½′	3′	48
62	Sarud .	Kadvi .	Do. .	100	....	23′	10½′	3′	450
63	Bhedasgaon ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	125	....		Do.		60
64	Thergaon ..	Do.	Do. ..	50	...		Do.		38
	Bavada Mahal.								
65	Salvan ..	Kumbhi ..	Seasonal ..	150	...	17′	8′	3′	25
66	Khokurul ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	50	....	23′	11′	3½′	20
	Panhala Mahal.								
67	Sarade Tarf ..	Varna ..	Seasonal. ..	150	....	23′	10½′	3′	25

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT.

THE GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY DECIDED IN 1947 TO NATIONALISE the motor transport industry with a view to eliminating uneconomic competition and placing the industry on a sound economic basis. It set up a statutory public corporation, known as the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation (B. S. R. T. C.). After World War I (1914-18) the motor transport industry yielded high profits which, coupled with freedom of entry and absence of regulation, attacted a large number of enterprising persons, most of whom were small operators owning a bus or two. In order to attract greater patronage, rates were often reduced as low as could cover only the "out-of-pocket" (i.e., variable) costs. Such a policy was necessarily short-sighted and detrimental in the long run to the industry as a whole. Over-crowding was a usual occurrence. Breakdowns were quite common. Necessary amenities such as good seating accommodation, canteens, waiting rooms, lavatories and other facilities were almost absent. In order to secure a larger turnover, drivers drove rashly, often endangering the lives of the passengers.

Conditions of service improved a little after the passing of the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. It was realised after independence that in welfare State public weal rather than private profits should be maximised. This could never be expected from private proprietors. Hence it was decided in 1947 to nationalise motor transport in the Bombay State. In accordance with this policy, motor transport in the Kolhapur district was nationalised on July 1, 1950.

Statistics of routes.

The table given below indicates the total number of routes, route mileage, the frequency of "Up" and "Down" trips and the average number of passengers per day per route:—

TABLE No. 8.

KOLHAPUR DIVISION OF STATE TRANSPORT—VARIOUS ROUTES IN OPERATION.

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Ajra-Ajra Station	3·0	1	1	14
2	Ashta-Shigaon	0·4	1	1	77
3	(1) Ichalkaranji-Hatkanangale.	7·0	5	5	175
	(2) Ichalkaranji-Jaisingpur ..	11·9	1	1	8
	(3) Ichalharanji-Kinighunki ..	21·8	1	1	163

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
3—*contd.*	(4) Ichalkaranji-Kodoli ..	26·8	1	1	146
	(5) Ichalkaranji-Kolhapur ..	19·5	9	9	648
	(6) Ichalkaranji-Malkapur ..	51·0	1	1	222
	(7) Ichalkaranji-Miraj ..	20·1	1	1	35
	(8) Ichalkaranji-Sangli ..	17·9	8	8	584
	(9) Ichalkaranji-Vadgaon ..	16·2	2	2	230
4	(1) Islampur-Ashta ..	12·5	1	1	93
	(2) Islampur-Borgaon ..	5·4	2	2	138
	(3) Islampur-Chikurde ..	10·4	3	3	297
	(4) Islampur-Karad ..	19·4	4	4	432
	(5) Islampur-Kokrud ..	24·6	3	3	495
	(6) Islampur-Kolhapur ..	34·3	4	4	576
	(7) Islampur-Sangli ..	25·4	9	9	1,134
	(8) Islampur-Shirala ..	12·3	5	5	465
	(9) Islampur-Takari ..	8·3	5	5	445
	(10) Islampur-Tasgaon ..	31·0	1	1	147
5	(1) Jaisingpur-Station-Dattwad .	16·0	1	1	131
	(2) Jaisingpur-Malkapur ..	55·0	1	1	106
6	(1) Karad-Chiplun ..	60·0	1	1	252
	(2) Karad-Dhebewadi ..	19·0	8	8	856
	(3) Karad-Helwak Dam ..	37·2	3	3	366
	(4) Karad-Karad Station ..	3·5	13	13	703
	(5) Karad-Kolhapur ..	54·3	4	4	660
	(6) Karad-Masur	8·0	1	1	70
	(7) Karad-Mayani ..	43·0	2	2	328
	(8) Karad-Oglewadi .	4·0	2	2	64
	(9) Karad-Palus	30·0	2	2	78
	(10) Karad-Pattan	21·0	6	6	606
	(11) Karad-Satara	32·4	7	7	784

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
STATE TRANSPORT.
Statistics of routes.

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
6—*contd.*	(12) Karad-Umbraj	11·0	1	1	63
	(13) Karad-Vaduj (Aundh) ..	45·2	2	2	376
	(14) Karad-Vaduj	40·0	1	1	42
	(15) Karad-Vita	26·9	9	9	819
	(16) Karad-Yelgaon .. .	19·0	4	4	306
7	Khasbag-Rajarampuri ..	3·2	15	15	900
8	Kirloskarwadi-Kadepur ..	20·0	1	1	71
9	(1) Kolhapur-Ajra (Uttar) ..	54·8	3	3	690
	(2) Kolhapur-Ajra (Sankeshwar).	63·2	1	1	305
	(3) Kolhapur-Belgaum .	70·0	3	3	627
	(4) Kolhapur-Bhadole ..	15·5	1	1	96
	(5) Kolhapur-Bhogav ..	19·0	4	4	404
	(6) Kolhapur-Chikodi ..	40·0	2	2	224
	(7) Kolhapur-Dattawad (Jaisingpur).	41·0	1	1	169
	(8) Kolhapur-Dattawad (Rendal)	30·0	1	1	70
	(9) Kolhapur-Gargoti ..	34·8	3	3	315
	(10) Kolhapur-Gangabavada ..	36·5	3	3	342
	(11) Kolhapur-Gadhinglaj ..	49·2	3	3	564
	(12) Kolhapur-Halkarni ..	48·0	1	1	123
	(13) Kolhapur-Jotiba ..	12·6	2	2	100
	(14) Kolhapur-Kadgaon ..	44·1	1	1	169
	(15) Kolhapur-Kagal ..	12·0	1	1	32
	(16) Kolhapur-Kale ..	12·4	2	2	166
	(17) Kolhapur-Kapashi ..	26·4	2	2	230
	(18) Kolhapur-Kapashi ..	30·1	3	3	417
	(19) Kolhapur-Karadga ..	20·7	2	2	188
	(20) Kolhapur-Kasarwada ..	23·7	3	3	246
	(21) Kolhapur-Khochi ..	21·3	1	1	114

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
9—*contd.*	(22) Kolhapur-Kodoli ..	21·7	4	4	424
	(23) Kolhapur-Kodoli ..	17·2	3	3	270
	(24) Kolhapur-Kumbhoj ..	20·4	1	1	64
	(25) Kolhapur-Kurundwad (Rendal).	31·0	1	1	183
	(26) Kolhapur-Kurundwad (Jaisingpur).	33·0	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
	(27) Kolhapur-Malkapur ..	30·4	4	4	440
	(28) Kolhapur-Miraj ..	33·2	1	1	90
	(29) Kolhapur-Murgud ..	38·4	3	3	282
	(30) Kolhapur-Narsobawadi ..	34·4	3	3	306
	(31) Kolhapur-Nipani ..	25·9	2	2	190
	(32) Kolhapur-Panhala ..	13·6	9	9	747
	(33) Kolhapur-Poona ..	157·7	2	2	568
	(34) Kolhapur-Patgaon ..	54·8	2	2	534
	(35) Kolhapur-Radhanagri ..	32·4	3	3	354
	(36) Kolhapur-Radhanagri Dam.	31·0	2	2	286
	(37) Kolhapur-Rajapur ..	·98·0	2	2	402
	(38) Kolhapur-Rendal ..	10·1	10	10	910
	(39) Kolhapur-Sangav (Hupri)	20·3	1	1	66
	(40) Kolhapur-Sarawade ..	33·5	2	2	262
	(41) Kolhapur-Satara ..	86·7	1	1	418
	(42) Kolhapur-Sangav (Kagal) ..	16·0	1	1	96
	(43) Kolhapur-Vadgaon ..	13·0	5	5	240
	(44) Kolhapur-Varvade ..	23·9	2	2	238
	(45) Kolhapur-Vishalgad ..	53·4	1	1	61
10	Kumbhoj-Hatkanangale Station.	6·4	2	2	126
11	Kundal Kirloskarwadi ..	3·0	1	1	17
12	Kurundwad-Jaisingpur Station.	8·0	8	8	529

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
STATE TRANSPORT.
Statistics of routes.

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
13	(1) Mayani-Rahimatpur Station.	39·0	2	2	224
	(2) Mayani-Diganchi ..	28·0	1	1	78
14	(1) Miraj-Arag	11·0	2	2	138
	(2) Miraj-Gundewadi ..	9·0	4	4	322
15	(1) Mirajkartikti-Railway Station (via Sandhya talkies).	2·7	6	6	288
	(2) Mirajkartikti-Railway Station (via Papachi tikti).	2·1	7	7	301
16	Narsobawadi-Jaisingpur Station.	7·8	9	9	495
17	Palus-Kirolskarwadi ..	3·5	3	3	51
18	(1) Panhala-Kodoli ..	12·4	2	2	130
	(2) Railway Station-Shivaji Statue.	1·4	2	2	38
19	(1) Rankala Tower-Temblai Hill.	5·0	2	2	38
20	(1) Sakoli Corner-Kadamwadi ..	5·3	5	5	365
21	(1) Sangli-Budhgaon ..	4·3	4	4	112
	(1-A) Sangli-Ankalkop ..	19·0	1	1	64
	(2) Sangli-Diguj	5·0	2	2	148
	(3) Sangli-Gavan	21·0	1	1	129
	(4) Sangli-Jaisingpur Station ..	6·0	8	8	448
	(5) Sangli-Karad (*Vita*) ..	61·1	2	2	500
	(6) Sangli-Kolhapur ..	31·0	6	6	768
	(7) Sangli-Kowlapur ..	6·7	4	4	144
	(8) Sangli-Madhavanagar ..	3·1	3	3	169
	(9) Sangli-Manerajuri ..	16·0	1	1	48
	(10) Sangli-Miraj	7·3	19	19	684
	(11) Sangli-Nandre	7·3	2	2	144
	(12) Sangli-Nipani	49·7	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
	(13) Sangli-Pandharpur ..	88·0	1	1	196
	(14) Sangli-Satara	78·0	3	3	984
	(15) Sangli-Walfale ..	34·8	2	2	200

TABLE No. 8—*concld.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Up Trips.	Down Trips.	Average No. of passengers travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
22	(1) Shivaji Bridge-Collector's Office.	2·4	..	..	....
	(2) Shivaji Bridge Jamkhindi Bungalow.	3·0	..	..	...
23	(1) Shivaji Statue-Gandhi-Nagar	5·5	17	17	810
	(1-A) Shivaji-Statue-District Jail	2·4	2	2	34
	(2) Shivaji Statue Rajarampuri	2·4	14	14	574
	(3) Shivaji Statue-Ruia Industries.	5·0	12	12	708
	(4) Shivaji Statue-Sugar Mills .	4·6	23	23	1,495
	(5) Shivaji Statue-Sugar Mills (CLRO).	5·3	4	4	320
	(6) Shivaji Statue-Tarabai Park	4·2	11	11	473
24	Shalini Palace-Shivaji Bridge.	1·7	1	1	5
25	(1) Shukarwar Dharamshala-Rajarampuri.	3·0	15	15	540
26	(1) Tasgaon-Bhilavadi ..	11·0	2	2	126
	(2) Tasgaon-Bhilavadi Station ..	7·0	4	4	272
	(3) Tasgaon-Kadepur ..	27·0	1	1	79
	(4) Tasgaon-Khanapur ..	23·5	3	3	291
	(5) Tasgaon-Sangli ..	15·0	8	8	768
	(6) Tasgaon-Satara ..	81·6	1	1	320
	(7) Tasgaon-Takari ..	22·0	1	1	134
	(8) Tasgaon-Waifale ..	20·0	1	1	112
27	(1) Umraj-Patan	18·2	3	3	298
28	(1) Vita-Atpadi	37·0	3	3	597
	(2) Vita-Dhalgaon	37·9	2	2	544
	(3) Vita-Diganchi	47·7	1	1	186
	(4) Vita-Kirloskarwadi ..	18·0	3	3	201
	(5) Vita-Mayani	12·5	6	6	366
	(6) Vita-Pussessavali ..	21·0	1	1	102
	(7) Vita-Sangli	34·2	4	4	380

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT.

Depots and Garages.

At Kolhapur, which is the headquarters of the Kolhapur Division, a permanent divisional workshop to repair and inspect vehicles was established. The position of depots and garages as on 28th February, 1955 was as follows:—

TABLE No. 9.

Name of the place.	Depot or Garage.	Type of structure.
Kolhapur	Depot . ..	Temporary.
Karad	Depot . .	Permanent.
Sangli	Depot	Permanent.
Islampur	Garage . ..	Temporary
Ichalkaranji	Garage	Temporary.
Tasgaon	Garage .. .	Temporary.
Vita	Garage ..	Temporary.

Bus stands, sheds and waiting rooms.

There were bus stands, sheds, waiting rooms at Kolhapur, Sangli, Karad, Vita, Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, Umbraj, Tasgaon, Islampur, whereas at Vadgaon and at Malkapur there were only sheds and waiting rooms.

Passenger Amenities.

Passenger amenities which were hitherto neglected by the private operators are given considerable importance by State Transport. That is due to a shift in the motive, that public good rather than private profits should be maximised. Spacious, well-ventilated and comfortable buses are provided; a priority list is maintained and seats are allotted according to it. Canteens, drinking water, sheds, stands, lavatories, and other facilities are provided at important stations. Special buses are arranged on occasions like fairs; extra buses are provided in case of heavy rush; buses are also available on hire to individuals and institutions for holiday parties, picnics etc. Every bus is equipped with a first-aid box and the conductors are given training in first-aid.

Fares.

The rate of fares was arrived at on the basis of the Corporation's operation throughout the State. In practice, however, fares are charged on the basis of the "stages" travelled; a stage consists of four miles. As such, the minimum fare is 20 nP. Children are charged half the rates with a minimum of ten nP.

Staff and Organisation.

On 28th February 1955, the Kolhapur Division was manned by 1,240 persons. The category-wise figures are as under: Administrative 220, Traffic 635 and Workshop 385.

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Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT.

Staff and Organisation.

The administrative staff consists of a Divisional Controller, a Divisional Statistician, a Divisional Auditor, a Labour Officer and persons working directly under them. The staff concerned with traffic consists of a Divisional Traffic Officer, an Assistant Traffic Superintendent, traffic inspectors, fuel inspectors, traffic controllers, drivers, conductors, porters, and watermen. Under the workshop staff come a Divisional Mechanical Engineer, a Divisional Works Superintendent, an Assistant Works Superintendent and various artisans.

Method of recruitment.

A Divisional Selection Committee is appointed for selection of staff having a basic pay of up to Rs. 100 per month. This committee consists of (1) a member of the B. S. R. T. C., who is ex-officio the chairman, (2) the Divisional Controller concerned (3) the District Superintendent of Police and (4) the Divisional Traffic Officer concerned. In the earlier stages, as far as possible employees of the ex-private operators were employed. In their case the Committee could waive the minimum qualifications, subject to the approval of the Corporation.

A Central Selection Committee for the State has been appointed to recruit staff carrying a monthly salary between Rs. 100 and Rs. 200. It consists of four members, three of whom are Corporation Board Members and the fourth is the Dy. General Manager (Engineering). One of the Corporation Board Members acts as the chairman. For selection of Class I and Class II officers with a minimum monthly salary of Rs. 200 and above, a Service Board consisting of the members of the Corporation is set up.

Welfare Committee.

A Welfare Committee has been set up to look after the welfare of the staff of the Division. In most units in the Division, sports clubs have been set up and they are functioning well. There is a library and reading room for the staff of the Divisional office. Newspapers in regional languages are supplied to all depots and garages. Books and newspapers are purchased from the Corporation funds and no subscription is charged for their use

Goods transport.

The Kolhapur Division also undertakes goods transport. On 28th February, 1955 there were 17 trucks and the number of trucks on road per day was 6·08. The tonnage carried during the month of February 1955 was 3248·47, of which 2896·11 tons were on private account, and food grains 326·38 tons and miscellaneous 25·98. Destinations of the goods carried were both within and outside the district.

RAILWAY.

Miraj-Kolhapur railway.

The meter gauge railway line between Miraj and Kolhapur was opened for traffic on 21st April 1891. This line, about 30 miles long, belonged to the Kolhapur Durbar, but was managed by the ex-Southern Mahratta Railway. On account

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

RAILWAY.

Miraj-Kolhapur railway.

of the merger of the State in the Indian Union and the nationalisation and regrouping of the railways, this railway line is now part of the Southern Railway.

It runs south-west from Miraj to Kolhapur. The following are the stations with their distance, in miles, from Miraj :—

Jaisingpur	8
Nimshirgaon-Khalsa	..
Hatkanangale	17
Rukadi	21
Kolhapur	30

The main items of export from the district are jaggery and sugar. Moreover during the rainy season when country craft cannot ply, the railhead at Kolhapur serves admirably for passenger as well as for goods traffic between Ratnagiri and Bombay.

The following table gives the number of passengers and tons of goods booked at each station during 1953-54 :—

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
RAILWAY.
Mirej-Kolhapur railway.

TABLE No 10.

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS BOOKED AND TONNAGE OF GOODS CLEARED FOR THE YEAR 1953-54.

Name of the Station	Number of passengers booked	Tonnage of goods cleared (principal commodities).							
		Coal and Coke.	Cotton.		Dyes and Tans.	Grains and Pulses.	Hides, skins and leather.	Ground-nuts.	Metals and manganese.
			Raw.	Manufactured.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Jaisingpur	2,84,999	...	....	59	....	1,265	...	2	126
Hatkanangale . ..	1,94,488	..	...	906	....	6,471	...	5	102
Rukadi .	1,50,893	..	...	10	....	....	...	44,679	9
Kolhapur .. .	5,21,935	1,034	1,071	10,444	3,391	17,400	9,575	55,460	7,077
Kolhapur Town B.O. ..	43,069								

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TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

Name of the Station.	Tonnage of goods cleared (principal commodities).							
	Provisions.	Oils.	Oil Seeds.	Spices.	Sugar.	Wood (unwrought).	Other commodities.	Total.
1	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Jaisingpur	25	73	..	35	18	213	32,244	34,060
Hatkanangale	....	66	109	...	34,851	....	6,734	49,244
Rukadi	....	103	...	....	....	....	805	45,606
Kolhapur	583	2,956	105	147	5,11,276	10	53,649	6,74,187
Kolhapur Town B O. ..								

It will be seen from the table that the largest number of passengers were booked from Kolhapur ; next comes Jaisingpur. As regards the total tonnage of goods booked during the same year, the first place goes to Kolhapur and the second to Hatkanangale. Of the total tons of goods booked on this section, sugar forms the largest proportion viz., 67·4 per cent.

CHAPTER 9.
Transport and Communications.
RAILWAY.
Miraj-Kolhapur railway.

REST HOUSES.

Travellers bungalows, district bungalows, forest department bungalows and rest houses, usually equipped with crockery, furniture, mattresses etc. are maintained by the State. These bungalows are intended for the lodging of officers of various Government Departments, when they are on tour for official purposes. Some of these bungalows are also open to the public, but preference is given to the Government officers. Moderate charges are levied upon the lodgers so as to cover the cost of lighting and menial services.

There is a travellers bungalow at Kolhapur while there are inspection bungalows at Panhala, Malkapur, Kurundwad, Radhnagari and Ichalkaranji. There is also a Circuit House at Kolhapur under the charge of the Collector of Kolhapur.

BULLOCK CARTS.

The number of bullock carts in the district was 25,855. A talukawise list of the same is given below :—

TABLE No. 11.

Name of Taluka or Peta.	Number of Bullock Carts.
Bavada	419
Radhanagari	2,163
Ajra	1,263
Panhala	2,769
Karvir	4,526
Kagal	3,893
Shirol	3,831
Hatkanangale	4,124
Shahuwadi	1,470
Bhudargad	1,397
Gadhinglaj	.. ..
Total ..	25,855

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

POST OFFICES.

THE INDIAN POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS DEPARTMENT maintains a postal Division of Kolhapur covering the whole district. Besides the chief receiving and distributing head office at Kolhapur, there are 15 sub-offices; 131 branch offices and 16 telegraph offices. The table given below shows the location of the various categories of post offices in all the talukas in the district :—

Hatkanangale—

S. O.:	Ichalkaranji, Ichalkaranji-Town, Hatkanangale.
B. O.:	Alta, Ambat, Hupri, Kumbhoj, Pattan, Kadoli, Rukdi, Vadgaon, Chandur, Ghunki, Herla, Kini, Korochi, Male, Pargaon, Rangoli, Rendal, Navande, Nagaon, Shiroli, Savarda, Tardal, Top, Borgaon, Kabnur, Lat, Janwad, Manakapur, Shiradvad, Rui, Shirdhon, Takvade, Bhadole, Bahubali, Managaon, Yelgud, Minche.

Kagal—

S. O.:	Kagal.
B. O.:	Kurli, Kapashi, Murgud, Sangar, Shedur, Savarda BK., Sulkud, Chikhali, Boriwade, Bachni.

Karvir—

H. O.,	Kolhapur.
S. O.	Gadhinagar.
B. O.:	Kaneri, Mudshingi, Sangvade, Washi, Valivade, Sangrul, Vadinge, Shiye, Bhuge, Shingnapur, Beed, Haldi, Kurukali, Nigve, Ispurli, Koparde.

Panhala—

B. O.:	Panhala, Kodoli, Kate, Kotoli, Dewale, Parle-tarf-Thane, Boriwade, Wadi-Ratnagiri, Yavluj, Satve.

Radhanagari—

S. O.:	Radhanagari.
B. O.:	Tarla, Rashivade, Savarda Bk., Thikpurli, Valva Bk., Radhanagari H. E. Works.

CHAPTER 9.
Transport and Communications.
POST OFFICES.

Shahuwadi—

S. O.:	Malkapur.
B. O.:	Vishalgad, Amba, Bambavada, Bhedasgaon, Sarud, Charan.

Shirol—

S. O.:	Jaisingpur, Kurundwad, Shirol, Narsobawadi.
B. O.:	Arjunvad, Nandni, Chipri, Dandoli, Dattavad, Kothali, Shirdhon, Takavade, Udgaon, Herwad, Akiwat, Alas, Takali, Shirti.

Bhudargad—

S. O.:	Gargoti (Extra Department).
B. O.:	Madilage, Shengaon, Vengrul, Pimpalgaon.

Ajra—

S. O.:	Ajra.
B. O.:	Bhadvan, Madilga, Bahirevadi, Uttur

Gadhinglaj—

S. O.:	Gadhinglaj.
B. O.:	Basarge Bk., Bhadgaon, Gijvane, Halkarni, Hasur Champu, Hasur Sansgiri, Kadgaon, Koulge, Mahagaon, Mutnal, Narewadi. Nesari, Nool, Pimpalgaon, Terani

Bavada—

S. O.:	Gaganbavada.
B. O.:	Achirne, Karul, Kokisra, Kurli, Kusur, Nadhavade, Rashivade Salvar, Sangulvadi

Note—H.O. = Head Office.
S.O. = Sub-Office.
B.O. = Branch Office.

Telegraph Offices are located at Kolhapur, Kolhapur-Shahupuri, Kolhapur New Palace, Gandhinagar. Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, Kagal, Kurundwad, Malkapur, Radhanagari, Hatkanangale, Narsobawadi, Shirol, Gadhinglaj and Ajra.

Telephone Exchanges.

There were three types of telephone exchanges in Kolhapur district in 1957, two of which were "Auto-Exchanges having 150 lines and one was 400 central Battery Multiple-1 and T-32 Trunk Boards.

Ichalkaranji which had 100 lines, was opened in 1953. The telephone exchange at Jaisingpur, which was opened in 1957,

CHAPTER 9. — Transport and Communications. POST OFFICES. Telephone Exchanges.

had 50 lines and the Jaisingpur telephone exchange had 40 connections. Ichalkaranji had 94 and Kolhapur had 390. There were 14 public call offices, of which 10 were in Kolhapur, and one each in Malkapur, Panhala, Kagal and Gadhinglaj. The following were the 6 trunk line alignments passing through this district, viz.—

(1) Kolhapur-Karad carrying one trunk.

(2) Kolhapur-Nipani carrying one trunk.

(3) Kolhapur-Ratnagiri carrying one trunk.

(4) Kolhapur-Ichalkaranji carrying one trunk.

(5) Kolhapur-Sangli carrying three trunks.

(6) Poona-Belgaum carrying seven trunks

Radio Communications.

The following table gives the total number of radio licences issued during 1950-54:—

TABLE No. 12.

Year.	Number of Licences issued.
1950	1325
1951	1552
1952	1916
1953	2157
1954	2509
Total	9459

Community Radio Sets.

Under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme of the Government of Bombay, radio sets are installed in villages by the Directorate of Publicity, who are also responsible for their maintenance and repairs. A community radio set can be installed for a Grampanchayat, Municipality or any other responsible institution in the area on contributing a sum of Rs. 150 for an electric radio set, and Rs. 175 for a Dry Battery set. In addition an amount of Rs. 60 is to be paid by way of maintenance charges by the community organisation concerned. However, the radio set is to remain the property of the Government. It is compulsory for the listeners to tune to programmes specially meant for rural areas.

The following list contains the number of community radio sets installed upto 1st October 1959, in the various talukas of Kolhapur district :—

Serial No.	Taluka.	Number of Radio Sets.
1	Ajra	5
2	Bavada	1
3	Bhudargad	4
4	Chandgad	5
5	Gadhinglaj	12
6	Hatkanangale	11
7	Kagal	15
8	Karvir	13
9	Radhanagari	5
10	Panhala	5
11	Shahuwadi	4
12	Shirol	10

CHAPTER 10—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.
INTRODUCTION.

THE PREVIOUS CHAPTERS HAVE GIVEN AN ACCOUNT of the principal sectors of the economy of the district such as agriculture, industry, trade and transport which provide means of livelihood to a great majority of the population. They do not however, exhaust the whole field of economic activity in the district and there is an appreciable percentage of the population which depends upon other pursuits for their maintenance. There are the learned professions like law, medicine, education, journalism and certain crafts and trades like bakeries, tailoring, laundries, hotels and restaurants, parching of grains, bicycle-repairing, motor-body-building, milk and its products etc. which are not included in any of the major sectors of the economy. These occupations have an important place in the economic life of the district as they provide means of livelihood not only to a considerable number of people, but also to those who produce essential goods of daily consumption. Some others render useful service to the people in a variety of ways. It may be said that the rapid growth of such occupations in the district during the last 60 years is both a factor in the pace of urbanization and an index of the degree of prosperity and economic stability attained by some of the sections of society, like the small artisan, and the trader. These occupations are a sort of blending of trade and industry. In this chapter an attempt has been made to give broad account of the more important of these occupations and the peculiar conditions and problems affecting the persons engaged in them; based on a selective study of a few representative establishments by means of a small token survey conducted in Kolhapur city in the year 1956. The study was confined to certain aspects of the occupations such as number of units existing, nature of tools and applications used, the average monthly expenses incurred and nature of the market for these products etc. The study was by no means fully comprehensive. But it would help in giving a broad picture of the conditions of people who were engaged in them

The occupations covered by the survey were :—

(1) Aerated Water manufacture.

(2) Agarbatti manufacture.

(3) Bakery.

(4) Cap making.

(5) Copper and brass smithy.

(6) Cycle-repairing.

(7) Flour-milling.

(8) Gold and silver smithy.

(9) Hair-cutting.

(10) *Khanavalis.*

(11) Laundering.

(12) Lodging and Boarding.

(13) Motor-body building.

(14) Photo-frame-making.

(15) Restaurants and tea shops.

(16) Shroff.

(17) Tailoring.

(18) Tin-smithy.

(19) Umbrella, Trunk and Lock making.

(20) Watch-repairing.

Information regarding the total number of establishments and the number of persons engaged in these occupations along with the categories of workers—paid and family members, men, women and children—was obtained from the Kolhapur municipality. The ward-wise break-up prepared by the municipality gives a clear idea of the total number of establishments in the city, their dispersal as between the different wards, the number of employers, the number and categories of workers and their break-up according to sex. This was the basic data for the survey as the number of samples selected for each occupation depended upon the total number of establishments in that occupation.

The percentage of samples selected varied between 5 and 10. They were selected from different localities and were representative of every size and type. A general questionnaire was framed and answers were collected from each of the selected samples.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

FLOUR MILLING.

DR. BALKRISHNA IN HIS SURVEY[1] IN 1926 RECORDED 19 FLOUR AND RICE MILLS in the city engaging 47 employees. Of these, one was started during 1901 and 1910, four during 1910 and 1920, and 14 during 1921 and 1926. Fourteen of these mills worked on electric power and five on oil engines. In 1946, there were 27 flour mills[2] in the city, employing 99 persons. Of these, nine were in A ward, seven in C ward, four each in D and E wards and three in B ward. About half of the mills worked on oil engines and the remaining half electrical energy. There were 117 flour mills in 1956. Of these, 37 were located in C ward, 28 in B ward, 20 in A ward, 18 in E ward and 14 in D ward. The total employment in these establishments was 361 persons, out of whom 250 were paid employees and 111 including seven children were members of employers' families. The sample comprised of six mills of different sizes. Of these, one was started in 1928, the other in 1934 and four during 1947 and 1951.

The main work done in the mills was grinding of grains, dehusking of rice and grinding of chillies. The owners of these establishments were occupied throughout the year in this occupation.

The mills were working on electric power and their main equipment consisted of electric motors, grinders, balances and other minor tools. The cost of equipment of one establishment was about Rs. 4,750 and of the other Rs. 4,000, of the third and fourth Rs. 3,700 and Rs. 3,200 respectively and of the last two Rs 2,400 and 1600. The yearly repairing charges of equipment in the biggest establishment in the sample came to about Rs. 450, in the other two between Rs. 300 and Rs. 350 and in the remaining three, between Rs. 150 and Rs. 250. The grinding stones had to be replaced frequently.

Three proprietors raised initial capital from their own resources to start their enterprises. The other three borrowed the necessary capital, the rate of interest on which was about 9 per cent. Of the three establishments, two had fully paid the debt by 1956 and the third had still to pay Rs. 500.

Four shops were situated in rented premises, the rent of each varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 80 per month and the other two were situated in owned premises. The other items of expenses on maintenance of establishment were electric charges, municipal licence fee, advertisement and other sundry expenses. Each establishment had to pay Rs. 12 per year as municipal licence fee. The consumption of electric energy varied from shop to shop. The two biggest shops consumed electric energy worth Rs. 325 and 275 respectively per month, and the remaining between Rs. 70 and Rs. 150 per month. The total sundry expenses of each varied from Rs. 5 to Rs. 20.

[1] Dr. Balkrishna, The Commercial Survey of the Kolhapur City in 1920, 1928, p. 1.

[2] N. V. Sovani, Social Survey of the Kolhapur City Vol. II, Industry, Trade and Labour, 1951, pp. 87–8.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

FLOUR MILLING.

All the six owners worked in the mills. Besides them, seven more workers were engaged in these establishments. All of them were skilled workers. Workers in two shops were paid Rs. 55 each per month; in the other two, between Rs. 40 and Rs. 54 per month. In the remaining two no paid-employees were engaged.

The rate usually charged for grinding grains varied from annas 12 per Bengali maund to annas 15 per maund and for dehusking rice between annas 4 and annas 9 per Bengali maund. The two largest concerns in the sample, grinded monthly about 930 maunds and 800 maunds of grains respectively, and dehusked about 575 and 675 maunds of rice. The remaining four establishments grinded monthly 330, 300, 260, and 200 maunds of grains respectively and dehusked 50, 45, 20 and 15 maunds of rice respectively. Two mills were also engaged in grinding chillies. The rate they charged for grinding was Rs. 7 per maund. Each was grinding eight and five maunds per month.

The business in two shops was more or less steady throughout the year and was brisk in winter and summer and dull in the remaining four months. It was more or less profitable in the two biggest concerns.

RESTAURANTS.

The hotel industry has been one of the most important industries in the city. In 1926, there were 126 tea shops and 21 hotels and a total of 178 persons were employed in them. Round about 1947, there were 188 restaurants and 53 boarding and lodging houses in the city. The total number of restaurants, *khanavalis* and residential hotels at the time of survey was 300 employing 1,169 persons out of whom 260 including 35 females and 118 children were members of owners' families and others paid servants. Restaurants and tea shops were located in almost all the wards, residential hotels mostly in C ward and *khanavalis* in C and E wards.

There were 248 tea shops and restaurants at the time of survey. They employed 829 persons out of whom 630 were paid employees and the remaining members of owners' families. Out of 248 shops, 98 were located in C ward, 48 in E ward, 40 in A ward. 39 in D ward and 23 in B ward. Only six establishments of different sizes were surveyed in the sample The shops in the sample were started between 1942 and 1952. Catering of tea and other eatables was the principal occupation in these shops. Five shops were situated in rented premises and one in the owned premise of the proprietor.

The initial capital required for starting the establishment was provided by the owners from their own capital. The capital investment in the six units varied from Rs. 800 to Rs. 10,000. The owner of the biggest unit had invested Rs. 10,000 in the establishment, the owner of medium sized unit about Rs. 3,000 and the capital investment in the smallest unit was about Rs. 800.

The equipment required for tea shops was furniture like chairs, tables, cupboards etc., and few utensils for cooking, crockery, and mirrors for decoration. Two establishments, small and big sized, had equipment worth Rs. 400 and Rs. 1,200 respectively. Durability of each piece of furniture was said to be between five years and 10 years. A few pieces of crockery were replaced every month. Annual expenditure for repairing the equipment of each establishment varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 100.

The total employment in all the above six units was 58 out of whom 11 persons including one child, were members of employers' families. The remaining 47 persons were paid employees including eight children. These employees were paid monthly wages and provided with daily food. One establishment was also giving them clothes. The other one was only paying wages and not serving daily food. Five units in the sample paid them wages along with food. Wages of a waiter in each of the five units varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40. Two establishments employed cooks, who were paid Rs. 50 each.

Other items of expenditure were rent of the premises, water and electricity charges, municipal licence fee and advertisement. Rent of the premises of the smallest establishment was Rs. 18 and in the case of the remaining four it varied from Rs. 60 to Rs. 125 per month. The total expenditure on all other items excluding rent, advertisement and wages of three establishments in the sample was between Rs 40 and Rs. 45 per month and of remaining two Rs. 10 and Rs. 110 respectively. Only one establishment was spending Rs. 180 per year on advertisement. This item of expenditure on advertisement was not included in the items of expenditure quoted above.

Raw materials required were wheat flour, gram flour, edible and hydrogenated oil, tea, sugar, milk and vegetables like onions, potatoes. All these items were purchased from local market. Two establishments consumed raw materials worth Rs. 140 and 185, the other two Rs. 256 and Rs. 380 and the remaining two Rs. 437 and Rs 1,320 per month.

Main items served to customers were *bhaji, wada, chiwada, dosa,* and a few sweet dishes like *ladoo, shira,* etc. A plate of *bhaji* or *chiwada* or *wada* or a cup of tea was sold at an anna each. Sweet dishes like *shira, ladoo,* etc. were sold at annas two each A plate of *dosa* was sold at annas 2. Daily sales of these six establishments were between Rs. 10 to Rs. 70.

The business in these establishments was more or less steady throughout the year. Daily sales depended upon the quality of the dishes served and cleanliness maintained in the premises. The margin of profit in one of the six establishments was fairly big, while in the other five it was low.

CHAPTER 10. — Miscellaneous Occupations. KHANAVALIS.

KHANAVALIS was another miscellaneous occupation in the city. At the time of survey there were 31 *khanavalis* in Kolhapur city. They were located in C and E wards. About 227 persons were employed in them, out of whom 40 including four females and four children were members of owners' families.

Three establishments were surveyed in the sample. Two were started in 1951 and one in 1955. The principal occupation of the three proprietors was to run a boarding house, which provided them employment throughout the year. The establishments were both, vegetarian and non-vegetarian. They were situated in rented premises.

The total capital invested in each establishment varied from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 4,000. The initial investment in one of them was raised by the owner from his own capital. In the other two, a part of it was borrowed at 12 per cent. rate of interest and the remaining amount was raised by the owners from their own resources. It was found that one of the above two establishments had not repaid the debt fully.

Equipment in these establishments consisted of utensils required for cooking and serving dishes and furniture like tables and chairs. The value of the equipment varied from Rs. 700 to Rs. 800.

These establishments spent Rs. 280, 1,098 and 375 respectively on raw materials like food grains, vegetables, mutton, eggs and fuel. These articles were purchased from the local market. Other expenses were, rent of the premises, water and electric charges, municipal licence fee and advertisement. The rent of each establishment was Rs. 91, 73 and Rs. 56 per month respectively. The total expenditure per month on other items like water and electric charges, municipal licence fee and advertisement of the three establishments was Rs. 85.

The total employment in the three units was 21 persons out of whom three were members of owners' families. The working hours of these employees were eight per day. These employees were paid wages as well as served two meals a day. The wages of a cook varied from Rs. 8 to Rs. 30 per month. In one establishment a waiter was paid Rs. 8 in the other Rs. 10 and in the third Rs. 20 per month.

The total cost of production of each establishment was Rs. 415, Rs. 655 and Rs. 1,312 per month respectively.

These establishments were providing only boarding facilities. Regular boarders were provided with two meals a day, one in the morning and the other in the evening. The number of boarders each establishment had, was 150, 300, and 600 respectively. These *khanavalis* also catered the needs of casual

customers, each serving 400, 480 and 900 casual customers a month. The rate per meal for a regular boarder was different from that of a casual boarder. A regular boarder had to pay As. 6 to As. 7 per meal and casual customer Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0 per meal. The number of boarders each establishment had, depended upon the quality of food served and cleanliness maintained in the establishment. The number of boarders was more or less constant throughout the year in the two establishments, while it was more in summer in the third establishment. The margin of profit in all the three units was not much as the net income of each was about Rs. 150 per month.

BOARDING AND LODGING.

There were 21 residential-*cum*-boarding houses in the city at the time of survey, 15 of which were located in C ward, four in E ward and one each in B and D wards. The total employment in all these establishments was 113 persons most of whom were paid employees. Only seven members of owners' families were engaged in this occupation, out of them three were males, one was a female and the remaining two children. Three establishments were surveyed in the sample. They were started between 1948 and 1954. Lodging and boarding was the principal occupation of the owners of the two establishments. The third owner had a cinema theatre and lodging and boarding was his subsidiary occupation. Two establishments were situated in rented premises. The rent of each was Rs. 60 and Rs. 75. Third was situated in owned premises, the value of which was about Rs. one lakh. The initial capital required for starting their establishments was raised by two owners from own resources and the third owner borrowed a part of capital from a local bank. It was found that he had not wholly repaid the debt. The biggest establishment in the sample had invested Rs. 115,000 in this occupation and the other two Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 2,500 respectively.

The equipment used was all kinds of utensils for cooking and serving dishes, furniture like tables, chairs, cots, mirrors, tea-trays, etc. One establishment had a radio set also. The biggest establishment in the sample had equipment worth Rs. 9,000 and the remaining two had equipment worth Rs. 2,000 each.

The total employment in all the three units in the sample was 30 persons out of whom eight were the members of owners families. One establishment had a female servant. All the employees were paid wages as well as given *two meals a day*. A person looking after the management of the establishments was paid Rs. 45 per month, *plus* two meals. A cook in one of the establishments was paid Rs. 40 per month, *plus* two meals a day, in another Rs. 55 with two meals. Waiters were paid Rs. 25 and Rs 35 respectively in the two establishments. The total wage bill of the three establishments was Rs. 665 per month, *plus* expenditure on meals.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

BOARDING AND LODGING.

Other items of expenditure were rent, water and electric charges, municipal licence fee and municipal tax and radio licence fee. The total expenditure on all these items per establishment was Rs. 95, Rs. 110 and Rs. 155 per month respectively.

Raw materials required were food grains, milk, vegetables, tea and other requirements for cooking. One establishment was both vegetarian as well as non-vegetarian. It consumed mutton and fish along with above materials. All these materials were purchased from local market. The biggest establishment spent about Rs. 1,000 per month on this item, others about Rs. 200 and Rs. 450 respectively. The cost of maintenance of an establishment depended mostly upon the current prices of food grains. fuel, other materials like milk, etc. The total cost of maintenance of the establishments were Rs. 750, Rs. 960 and Rs. 1.300 per month respectively.

These establishments provided both lodging as well as boarding facilities. The net income earned by the biggest was about Rs. 1,500 per month and by others Rs. 300 and Rs. 200 respectively. This occupation was more or less profitable to one establishment and in the other two the margin of profit was not very high.

These establishments catered the needs of all classes of people within or outside the district. The demand for lodging in these establishments was more or less constant throughout the year.

HAIR-CUTTING.

At the time of survey there were 223 hair-cutting establishments employing 161 paid employees and 220 members of employers families in Kolhapur city. They were concentrated in C, E, and A wards each containing 104, 44 and 31 respectively. The remaining two wards had only 34. Many establishments were small, run by owners with the help of their family members. In other cases owners worked side by side with the paid employees. Six establishments were included in the sample.

In all the establishments surveyed, hair-cutting was the main occupation giving employment throughout the year. They were situated in rented premises, the rent of which varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 depending upon the size of establishment. The equipment consisted of few pieces of furniture like revolving chairs specially used in hair-cutting saloons, mirrors, dressing tables, several sets of necessary instruments such as scissors, razors, cropping machines etc. and toilet requisites. The cost of equipment in four establishments varied from Rs. 350 to Rs. 425 and the remaining two had equipment worth Rs. 1.027 and Rs. 1,680 respectively.

Provision of necessary capital investment was made by the proprietors themselves, except one who had to borrow Rs. 500 at 9 per cent. rate of interest for starting the establishment. It was found that he had fully repaid the debt before the survey. Nine members of employers' families and five paid employees among whom one was a boy, were employed in the six establishments out of which two were exclusively managed by proprietors' family members.

The wages of the employees varied from Rs. 60 to Rs. 80 per month. The boy who was employed in one establishment was paid Rs. 30 per month. None of the establishments employed any female employee.

Electricity was used for lighting purposes and electric charges borne by them varied from Rs. 3 to Rs. 20 per month depending upon the size of the establishment. One shop was not using electricity. Every shop was charged Re. 1 as a licence fee by the municipality. Two establishments were spending Rs. 5 each on toilet and other requirements, two Rs. 15 and Rs. 30, and the remaining two Rs. 70 and Rs. 140 on these items. The net income of the shops varied between Rs. 55 to Rs. 250 per month. The number of customers served by them depended upon their size as judged by number of persons working therein, their situation and to some extent by subjective factors like the popularity of the owner, the conveniences and comforts offered by him and general reputation of the establishment. A small establishment employing two to three persons served about 25 persons daily and earned Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 a day. The establishments in the sample catered the needs of all classes.

The rates charged for various types of services were as follows :—

As. 8 for hair-cut.
As. 2-3 for shaving.
As. 10 for hair-cutting and shaving.

SARAFEE.

SARAFS are a body of persons who are engaged in the sale of gold and silver ornaments and other articles of domestic use. In 1926, when Dr. Balkrishna made the survey[1] in Kolhapur he found that there were 62 establishments of shroffs in the city. At the time of survey there were 184 establishments of shroffs which were mostly located in B C and D wards. Of the five wards in the city, C ward contained the largest number, B and C wards together accounting for as many as 156.

The total employment in all these establishments was 474 persons out of whom 224 were members of employers' families and 250 other employees. Fifteen children were employed in the shops. Six *saraf* shops were surveyed in the sample. Of these, one was started in 1849, the other in 1890, two others in 1909 and 1910 and the remaining two in 1935 and 1943 respectively.

[1] Op. cit., p. 1.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

SARAFEE.

Sarafee business was the principal occupation providing employment throughout the year in four establishments in the sample. In the remaining two shops, money-lending was the chief occupation and *sarafee* was a subsidiary occupation. Three establishments were situated in the premises owned by owners and three in rented premises. All these establishments were dealing only in the sale of ornaments.

They had equipment like safes, balances and a few pieces of furniture like chairs and tables. The value of equipment of each establishment in the sample varied from Rs. 700 to Rs. 3,500.

The circulating capital of the smallest unit was Rs. 10,000 and of the biggest unit Rs. four lakhs.

These establishments were mainly dealing in gold and silver ornaments. The consumption of gold and silver of the two small units in the sample was about 50 and 800 tolas each per month. Two other units consumed 200 and 250 tolas of gold and 3,600 and 800 tolas of silver per month respectively and the last two 100 tolas of gold each and 1,000 and 3,000 tolas silver. The other items of expenditure on establishments were electricity and municipal tax and advertisement.

Municipal tax was collected from those establishments which were situated in proprietors owned premises. The amount of tax varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 300 per year. Two establishments consumed electricity worth Rs. 6, the third Rs. 8 and the other two Rs. 10 and Rs. 11 per month. One unit in the sample was spending Rs 50 per year on advertisement. Three establishments were situated in rented premises, the rent of each varied from Rs. 23 to Rs. 50 per month.

The total employment in all the six units was 36 persons out of whom 18 were members of employers' families and 18 paid employers. Clerks in the shops were paid between Rs. 60 and Rs. 100, salesmen Rs. 50 and peons between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 per month. The biggest unit in the samples had ten employees out of whom five were members of owner's family. The working hours of these employees were eight a day.

The net income of two average sized units was about Rs. 250 each and of the remaining three between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,600 per month. These units usually placed orders for the manufacture of gold and silver ornaments with different artisans, by supplying them the required quantity of gold and silver and artisans were only paid wages, for the work done. The manufactured articles were directly sold by the establishments either to retail dealers or to customers. The usual market for the products was Kolhapur district as a whole. Business was brisk between October and May. Establishments in the sample catered the needs of all classes of people in the district. Our finding in the sample showed that business of four establishments was profitable.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

GOLD AND SILVER SMITHY.

GOLD AND SILVER INDUSTRY had been very prominent in this district since the middle of 19th century. The total number of establishments of gold smiths and shroffs in the city was 95 in 1854.[1] In 1926, Dr. Balkrishna in his survey[2] on Kolhapur town reported that gold and silver smithy was the only one big industry in the city. Out of 247 shops of jewellers of goldsmiths 185 were of gold-smiths who were manufacturers of gold and silver ornaments. *Sonars, marathas, brahmins, jains, muslims, kshatriyas* and *lohars* were the main communities engaged in the industry.

There were 181 establishments in the city at the time of survey; 80 per cent. of these were located in B and C wards and the remaining in A, D and E wards. The total employment in all of them together was 508 out of whom 204 were members of employers' families and 304 paid workers. Six establishments were surveyed in the sample. Of these, three were started round about 1920, the fourth in 1930 and the remaining two in 1944 and 1950 respectively. Manufacture of gold and silver ornaments was the principal occupation in all the establishments in the sample. The occupation provided employment throughout the year. They were started by the proprietors with their own capital.

The equipment of a goldsmith was anvil, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots, crucibles, moulds and nails for ornamental work, *tika autti*,[3] *saj autti*,[4] drilling machine, cupboards, chairs, etc. The cost of equipment varied from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2,000. In the largest establishment it was more than Rs. 2,000.

Two establishments were situated in owned premises, and the remaining four in rented premises. The rent varied from Rs. 8 per month to Rs. 50 per month, being Rs. 30, Rs. 35 and Rs. 50 respectively in three cases. The working capital of the smallest unit in the sample was Rs. 500 and of the biggest Rs. 50,000

The raw materials required by these artisans were gold, silver and copper. Four establishments were consuming only gold and a negligible quantity of silver, one only silver and the last one both gold and silver. The quantity of gold consumed by five establishments varied from 10 tolas to 50 tolas per month. The one which was using only silver consumed 1,000 tolas of silver and the other one which was using both silver and gold consumed 25 tolas gold and 800 tolas silver. Raw materials were provided by shroffs in the city to four out of six establishments in the sample and the artisans charged wages for the manufacture of the ornaments.

[1] Graham, The Statistical report on the principality of Kolhapur, 1854, p. 492.

[2] Op. cit., p. 1.

[3] A type of mould required for making *tika*.

[4] A type of mould required for making *saj*.

CHAPTER 10. Miscellaneous Occupations. GOLD AND SILVER SMITHY.

Two establishments had no paid employees and were managed by members of proprietors' families. The other two employed six paid employees and four persons from the members of owners' families. In the remaining two, five members of owners' families and three paid employees were engaged. Wages of paid employees varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 100 per month. The wages of an employee who did the work of polishing, was Rs. 35. *Tika* maker was paid Rs. 65 per month and *saj* maker Rs. 100 per month. All these workers had to work from seven to ten hours a day.

These artisans usually manufactured gold and silver ornaments like *tikas*, necklaces, beads, chains idols, rings, *saj*, and silver utensils, vessels etc. They mostly received orders from local shroffs or bigger establishments dealing in gold and silver. Four of the six establishments in sample received orders from shroffs. They only took wages in return for the manufactured products. These artisans served the orders of the whole district as well as Khandesh. The earning of these establishments varied from Rs. 150 to Rs. 850 per month. Business in three out of six establishments was profitable and in the remaining three the margin of profit was reported to be very low.

BICYCLE REPAIRING.

IN 1926, THERE WERE 14 SHOPS OF CYCLE DEALERS[1] and repairers in the town. A total of 16 persons were employed in them. In 1947, the total number of bicycle shops in city was 134.[2]

There were 325 bicycle-repairing and hiring shops in the city at the time of survey. A majority of these shops was located in C ward. 35 shops were located in A ward, 24 in B ward, 175 in C ward, 31 in D ward and 44 in E ward. The total employment in all these shops was 590, out of whom 329 persons including four children were members of employers' families, and 261 were paid employees. Six establishments of different sizes were selected for survey. Of the six shops, one was started in 1918, the other in 1940, the third and fourth in 1953 and 1954 and the last two in 1955. Bicycle-repairing, hiring and sale of spare parts of bicycle was the principal occupation in five shops and in addition to this the sixth shop had an agency of sale of bicycle. Out of the six shops, initial capital resources in the case of four were contributed by the proprietors themselves, while two establishments borrowed the necessary capital. The debt incurred by these two was not fully repaid even till 1956.

Equipment of these establishments was drilling machines, spanners and other machine tools required for repairing and a few pieces of furniture like tables, chairs, cup-boards.

[1] *Ibid.*, pages 5, 29 and 35.

[2] N. V. Sovani, Op. cit., p. 182.

The total cost of equipment of the biggest establishment in the sample was about Rs. 500 and of the remaining five between Rs. 200 and Rs. 300 each. The life of each different item in the equipment varied between ten years and 30 years. The repairing and overhauling charges on equipment varied from shop to shop. Two shops spent every year Rs. 100 each on repairing while others spent between Rs. 25 and Rs. 50.

The circulating capital invested in these shops varied from shop to shop. A sum of Rs. 50,000 was invested in the biggest establishment, Rs. 20,000 each in two establishments, Rs. 4,000, Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 1,000 respectively in the others.

Five of the six establishments were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied between Rs. 15 and Rs. 60 per month. The remaining one was situated in owned premises. Besides rent, other items of expenditure on maintenance of establishments were water charges, electric charges, advertisement and municipal tax. The total cost of maintenance of one establishment including water and electric charges, municipal licence fee and municipal tax, excluding rent, and wages of labour was about Rs. 300 and of three Rs. 100 each per year. Two establishments had no expenditure on these items.

As the establishments in the sample were neither engaged in manufacturing bicycles nor in producing spare parts of bicycles, consumption of raw materials by them was out of question. They were more or less concerned with the purchases of bicycles and spare parts of bicycles

The total employment in all the six establishments was 21 persons out of whom ten were members of employers' families and 11 paid employees. A bicycle-repairer was paid between Rs. 45 and Rs. 60 per month and a cleaner between Rs. 15 and Rs. 40 per month. The total wage bill excluding the wages of members of employers' families of one establishment was Rs. 120; of the other Rs. 90; of the third, fourth and fifth Rs. 60 each; and of the last Rs. 35 per month. The working time observed in these shops was eight to ten hours a day.

The total cost of maintenance of these establishments including all items, rent, wages, taxes and electricity varied between Rs. 60 and Rs. 210 per month and the net income of them varied between Rs. 110 and Rs. 800 per month. Out of the six establishments, the margin of profit in the three was quite high and in the other three it was quite low due to lack of sufficient business. These establishments catered local needs and business in them was brisk between October and May.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

LAUNDRIES.

MAJOR GRAHAM RECORDED 175 WASHERMEN[1] in Kolhapur town. Dr. Balkrishna in his survey[2] in 1926 recorded 25 establishments of *dhobis* or washermen. A total of 31 employees was employed in them. The average working hours in these establishments were 12½ per day. Round about 1947, there were 128 laundries[3] in the city and a total of 269 persons were engaged in them. Of these, 52 were in C ward, 24 in D ward, 21 in B ward, 19 in E ward, and 12 in A ward

There were 228 laundries or washing companies at the time of our survey. These establishments were managed by employers and paid servants. All these concerns together employed 217 members of employers' families and 196 paid employees. Our sample contained six concerns of different sizes. The establishments in the sample were family concerns in which proprietors with the help of their family members carried on the business. No paid employees were employed in them. Washing of clothes was the principal occupation of all these concerns, which gave employment throughout the year. They were situated in rented premises, rent of which varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 18 per month.

Equipment of these concerns consisted of show-cases, cupboards, chairs, tables for ironing and ironing machines. Two establishments had one ironing machine each, two had two each and the remaining two had three and four each. Two laundries had one bullock and a bullock cart each. The cost of equipment of the five units excluding the smallest unit varied from Rs. 350 to Rs. 600. The cost of a smallest unit without a bullock and a bullock-cart was Rs. 26.

The working capital required for the purchase of raw materials varied from Rs. 17 to Rs. 100 including capital required for maintenance of bullocks. Raw materials included charcoal, wood, bleaching powder, washing soda, soap, petrol and indigo. The cost of raw materials of the smallest unit in the sample was Rs. 17 and of a medium unit Rs. 52 and of the biggest Rs. 100.

The rent of these establishments varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 20 depending upon the size of the establishment. The cost of production including rent of premises, electric charges, municipal licence fee, cart tax, advertisement etc. varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 35 per month. The smallest unit in the sample spent Rs. 12 and the biggest Rs. 35 per month on all these items.

In four out of six establishments, the necessary initial capital was raised by the proprietors from their own resources and the remainng two, borrowed it.

[1] Op. cit., p. 116.

[2] Op. cit., pages 4, 28, 34 and 43.

[3] N. V. Sovani, Op. cit., p. 205.

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LAUNDRIES.

Process of washing and ironing of clothes in these shops was as follows: —

Clothes were first collected from customers and marked with their abbreviated names with marking ink. They were then piled in a large shallow iron or copper vessel filled with a solution of water and carbonate of sodium (washing soda). The more soiled parts of clothes piled in the vessel were then soaped, and put in a large cylindrical vessel known as *bhatti*, filled with boiling water. A light floating frame was kept over the *bhatti* so as to allow the steam to pass through the clothes for a couple of hours. Next day, they were sent for washing to a tank or a well where they were blued with indigo after being washed and soaked in diluted rice gruel and starched. Finally they were ironed and pressed at the shop and delivered to customers.

Of the six establishments surveyed three had a net income of Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 per month and two Rs. 100 to Rs. 120. The washing rate prevalent was two annas for every single piece of cotton cloth.

None of the concerns in the sample was found to be using modern methods of washing. Their business though brisk for eight months in a year did not yield a large, margin of profit as it hardly went beyond Rs. 120 per month. One establishment was reported to be running at a loss.

AERATED WATER AND SODA FACTORIES.

Dr. Balkrishna in his survey in 1926 recorded 29 establishments of manufacturers and sellers of aerated water. A total of 31 employees were engaged in them. In 1947, there were 58 shops of this kind in the city and a total of 121 persons were engaged in them. Of these, 29 were in C ward, 10 each in B and E wards, 8 in D ward and one in A ward.

There were in all 171 cold drink houses and soda-water factories at the time of our survey. Of these, 46 were in E ward, 70 in C ward, 21 in B ward, 20 in A ward, and 14 in D ward. The total employment in them was 250 persons of whom 210 were paid employees. Six shops of different sizes were taken in the sample. Manufacturing of aerated water was the principal occupation in them. These concerns enjoyed a brisk season in summer months from February to June. Most of them were small in size except a few which were having up-to-date and modern equipment and comfortable rooms and furniture. Four establishments in the sample were of bigger and medium size. The capital investment in them varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 5,000, while in the small units, it varied from Rs. 400 to Rs. 600.

The equipment of these shops consisted of tables, chairs, cupboards, soda-fountains, bottles, glasses etc. The cost of equipment in each shop varied from Rs. 300 to Rs. 3,000. The biggest units were having better and more elegant furniture and were manufacturing a larger variety of drinks. The small units contained equipment worth Rs. 300.

CHAPTER 10. — Miscellaneous Occupations. AERATED WATER AND SODA FACTORIES.

Raw materials consisted of milk, sugar, salt, ice, saw-dust, essences and preservatives. Ordinarily raw materials were purchased locally except essences and preservatives, which were purchased from Bombay and other centres.

All the establishments in the sample except one, were managed by the proprietors with the help of their family members and paid servants. Two establishments had four servants each, one had one servant and the remaining two had six and two each. One was exclusively managed by the proprietor with the help of family members. The payment of a waiter who served dishes, varied between Rs. 25 and Rs. 35. A person who attended to soda-fountain was paid between Rs. 40 and Rs. 45 per month. The products of these concerns consisted of aerated waters of all kinds such as soda, lemon, orange, etc., and ice-cream. All the shops in the sample prepared and sold cold drinks and served ice-creams.

Annual net income of small units varied between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,200 and of bigger units between Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 3,000. A glass of soda or lemon was sold at annas two and a half ice-cream plate at annas three.

The business was profitable in four out of six units. The remaining two had income just enough and to maintain the establishments. Ice-cream plates and aerated waters were served only in shops. Many a time the bigger establishments executed orders for ice-cream by marriage parties.

TAILORING FIRMS.

There were 170 tailoring establishments in the city at the time of survey. Of these, 30 were located in A ward, 27 in B ward, 48 in C ward, 28 in D ward and 37 in E ward. A total of 280 persons including 172 members of owners' families were engaged in them. Only six concerns of different sizes were surveyed in the sample.

All the shops in the sample were started after 1936. Tailoring was the principal occupation in them, providing employment throughout the year. They were situated in rented premises. Three were started by the owners with their own capital, while the other three owners borrowed the necessary initial capital. It was found that the latter persons repaid the loan before the survey was undertaken.

The total capital investment in these shops varied from Rs. 450 to Rs. 8,000. The smallest unit had an investment of Rs. 450, three others had between Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 2,000 and the remaining two had Rs. 7,000 and Rs. 8,000.

The equipment required in these shops was sewing machines. scissors, showcases and a few pieces of furniture. Two shops had five machines each, and the remaining four had six, four,

three and one each. The cost of equipment of each shop varied from Rs. 400 to Rs. 2,600. The smallest unit had equipment worth Rs. 400 and the largest Rs. 2,600.

Other expenses borne by the shops for maintenance of establishments were rent, electric charges. Rent of the establishments varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 70 per month. The smallest unit had to pay Rs. 12 and the biggest Rs. 70 per month Five shops together consumed electricity worth Rs. 33 per month ; the sixth one was not using electric power. Total cost of maintaining each establishment including wages, raw materials etc. varied between Rs. 100 and Rs. 900 according to the size of the unit. Raw materials required were thread, and canvas cloth. Two shops consumed 70 reels of thread ; the other two 60 and 20 reels respectively per month. One shop spent Rs. 100 per year on advertisement.

The total number of employees employed in these six shops was 36 including nine persons who were the members of owners' families. One shop was exclusively managed by the owner. Wages to the employees were paid at piece rate. A worker got wages equivalent to 50 per cent. or 60 per cent. of the work done. The average monthly wage bill of a worker was between Rs. 50 and Rs. 80.

Shirts, coats, trousers, pyjamas, etc. were the main clothes stitched in the shops. Their charges varied from shop to shop in the sample. A shirt was charged between As. 12 and Rs. 1/4, a coat from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25 and a trouser from Rs. 3 to Rs. 15. The net income of each shop varied from Rs. 75 to Rs. 250 per month. Stitching charges were fixed according to the quality and nature of the work done. All the orders for stitching clothes were received from local people. One of the shops in the sample was specialized in stitching woollen clothes. The brisk season of tailoring establishments was winter and summer. It was found that in these establishments the margin of profit was not very high.

READY-MADE CLOTHES MAKING.

Besides these tailoring shops there were shops for keeping ready-made clothes in the city. Their number was 45 at the time of survey. Of these shops C ward contained 14, B ward nine, A and D wards eight each and E ward six. Six shops of different sizes were taken in the sample. All the shops except one in the sample were started after 1944. The principal occupation in these shops was tailoring. The initial capital was raised by proprietors from their own resources.

The equipment in these shops was sewing machines, pairs of scissors, and other material required for sewing, and cupboards and chairs. One shop had four sewing machines, the other had three and other two had two each and the last two had five each. Four shops had five pairs of scissors each and two had

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READY-MADE CLOTHES MAKING.

two each. The maximum number of cupboards one shop had, was 13 while the smallest shop had only one. The yearly repairing and overhauling charges of each shop varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 80.

All the shops in the sample were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 110. Other expenses on maintenance of establishments were electricity and municipal licence fee. The total electric bill per month of each establishment was between Rs. 6 and Rs. 20. Two establishments were paying Rs. 3 each as municipal licence fee per year; one was paying Rs. 55 as municipal tax.

Raw materials required were cloth of medium and coarse variety, thread and canvas. The consumption of cloth of both varieties in each shop varied from 500 to 3,000 yards per month.

The total employment in these shops was 36. Of these, 23 were paid employees. The wages of a tailor varied from shop to shop, the minimum being Rs. 35 per month and the maximum Rs. 75. Three shops employed four salesmen. The wages paid to them varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month. The total monthly wage bill of each establishment varied from Rs. 35 to Rs. 300.

Half-pants, shirts, coats, trousers, pyjamas and baby-frocks were made in these shops. The monthly production of all these ready-made garments of each shop varied between 650 to 2,000 pieces. These ready-made cotton garments were mostly sold to retail dealers in the local market. Usually marriage season was the brisk season in this business.

BAKERY.

IN 1926, THERE WERE 12 BAKERIES in Kolhapur city. Most of them were started after 1921. Round about 1947, the city contained 35 bakeries, 18 of which were in C ward, five each in A and B wards, four in D ward and three in E ward. There were 75 bakeries at the time of survey. Most of them were family concerns which were managed by owners with the help of male members of their families. These establishments employed 48 employees other than family members. Of the 75 bakeries, 28 were located in C ward, 17 in B ward, 13 in D ward, nine in E ward and eight in A ward. Six shops which were taken in the sample, were managed by 15 owners and their family members, and 17 paid employees. Principal work done in these establishments was baking of breads and biscuits, which provided employment throughout the year. One establishment in the sample was situated in proprietor's own building worth Rs. 40,000. The remaining five were housed in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50 according to the size of the establishment.

The mechanical equipment of these establishments consisted of a large wooden table to prepare the dough, ovens with its accessory equipment such as trays, small iron sheet boxes to bake the bread, long iron rods, vessels, moulds and one or two

cupboards. The cost of equipment ranged from Rs. 400 to Rs. 3,000 depending upon the size of the establishment. The cost of oven varied from Rs. 250 to Rs. 1,000.

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The use of modern machinery and process of manufacture was almost absent in these concerns. Only one bakery was using kneading machine. The entire process of baking breads in the other bakeries was done by physical labour by persons who had acquired skill through years of practice and experience.

Raw materials required for the manufacture of bread and biscuits were wheet-flour or maida, yeast, butter, sugar, salt, hydrogenated oil etc. The average consumption of raw materials in a small unit per month was about 20 maunds of wheat-flour, 17 lbs. of hydrogenated oil and about a maund of sugar. The cost of raw materials per month varied from Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,500 depending upon the size of the establishment and its turnover. The cost of production excluding cost of raw materials of a small unit worked out at about Rs. 100 per month.

The five units manufactured about 1,000 lbs. of biscuits, 2,71,000 butter biscuits, 3,402 lbs. of bread, 82 lbs. of *toast* and 150 dozens of buns in a month. A pound of bread was sold at annas five and six pies to annas six. A pound of biscuits was sold at annas eleven in one shop and annas fourteen in another.

The total employment in all the shops in the sample was 25, out of whom eight were employers' and their relatives and 17 paid employees. Two shops were exclusively managed by the proprietors. Two shops employed two employees together with four members of employers' families. The other two employed five and six paid employees respectively. Wages paid to employees varied between Rs. 20 and Rs. 90. One unit paid Rs. 50 to a baker and the other Rs. 90 to him. The persons employed for making breads was paid between Rs. 40 and Rs. 45. The average daily working hours were eight.

Business was more or less steady throughout the year. These establishments in the sample catered the needs of all classes. The result of our investigation showed that demand for bread was not stable throughout the year. It was fluctuating from season to season. It was less in rainy season and more in other seasons. The methods adopted by these units for baking breads were very crude. There was an absence of use of modern methods of baking. Both the factors contributed to a low margin of profit and afforded little incentive to owners to develop this industry on a large scale.

ADMINISTRATION.

A LARGE NUMBER OF PERSONS of the district are engaged in several branches of public administration. These include persons working as police and village watchmen, in offices of

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Government, in municipalities and other local bodies, as village officials and servants.

The 1881 census records a total number of 14,592 persons under the head "Persons engaged in the General and Local Government of the country". This head is divided into three sub-heads, which with the number engaged in each are shown below: —

	Males.	Females.
(1) Officers of the then Government of the princely state of Kolhapur.	198	......
(2) Officers of municipal, local and village Governments.	149	......
(3) Officers of foreign or independent Governments or States including the then Provincial and Central Governments and other princely states in India.	14,245	......
Total ...	14,592	......

The Census report, however notes that the figures against (1) and (2) might include a large number of village officials who were not full-time servants of Government and whose main occupation was agriculture.

The figures of the 1911, 1931 and 1951 Censuses, which follow more or less similar classification under public administration are shown below* for comparison : —

Service.	1911.		1931.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Police ..	803	..	201	..	1,603	16
2. Service of the Princely State of Kolhapur.	8	..	3,620	24	2,367(a) 178(b)	31(a) 5(b)
3. Service of foreign States and other Governments.	5,288	75	1	..	1,286	204
4. Municipal and other local (not village bodies).	136	28	1	..	1,315	13
5. Village officials, servants including village watchmen.	3,910	632	71	3	6,741	240

* These tables are compiled from Census Reports of 1911, 1931 and 1951.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS.

PERSONS INCLUDED IN THE GROUP of "arts, letters, and science" belong to various smaller groups which are distinct from one another. There are authors, journalists, sculptors, architects, photographers, musicians, actors, dancers, etc. The previous census classification included engineers and surveyors also in this category. In 1931, the largest number of persons under this group was artists, sculptors etc., who were 793 in number. Closely following them were musicians, actors and doctors who numbered 584 of whom 36 were women. Details are given below :—

Category.	Men.	Women.
1. Artists, Sculptors	765	28
2. Musicians, Actors and Dancers	548	36
3. Authors, Editors, Journalists and Photographers ..	23	...
4. Horoscope writers, Fortune tellers, etc. ..	8	....
5. Conjurors, Acrobats, etc.	5	....
6. Managers, Employees of public entertainment ..	2	...
7. Scribes and Stenographers	....	....
8. Architects, Surveyors, Engineers	....	....
Total ..	1,351	64

The Census of 1951 recorded 112 persons as engaged in "art, letters and journalism". They included 35 artists, sculptors and image-makers, 10 journalists, authors and editors and 67 photographers.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

THE CENSUS OF 1911 RECORDED the number of teachers and professors as 646. Out of this number, 48 were women. Twenty years later this number had risen to 834, out of whom 46 were women. In 1951, the number of persons engaged in educational services and research work was 2,624, of whom 268 were women. In 1955-56, there were four colleges, two technical institutes, three primary training colleges and one training college for secondary school teachers. There was also one rural university, Mouni Vidhyapitha at Gargoti. There were 37 secondary schools, of which five were run by Government and 32 including four for girls by private agencies. Nine of these schools were situated in rural areas and 28 in urban areas. The total number of primary schools was 1,087 out of which 633 were run by District School Board and 374 by private agencies. Of these primary schools, 80 were located in Kolhapur city, two each at Gadhinglaj and Jaisingpur, five at Ichalkaranji and three at Kurundwad.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The number of secondary school teachers at the end of March 1955, was 557 out of whom 502 were males and 52 females. The number of teachers serving in Government schools was 68 including three women and of teachers in non-Government schools 489 including 52 females. The basic scale of a trained graduate teacher in Government schools was uniform throughout the district, so also that of trained teachers in non-Government schools. The basic scale of each category is shown below :—

1. Scale of a trained graduate in Government school.	Rs. 70—200 with usual Dearness Allowance at Government rate and House rent in Kolhapur city.
2. Scale of a B. A. S. T. C. graduate teacher in non-Government school.	Rs. 74—160.
3. Scale of a trained graduate in non-Government school.	Rs. 80—200.
4. Scale of an untrained matriculate in non-Government school.	Rs. 50—3—56.

No matriculates were appointed in Government schools.

The number of primary teachers employed in the district was 3,058 out of whom 376 were women. In Kolhapur city alone 601 teachers including 147 women were employed in primary schools. In the district, 1,997 including 218 women were employed in schools run by District Local Board and 460 including 11 women in schools run by private agencies. The basic scale of a trained primary teacher was Rs. 40—1—50—E.B.—1½—60—S.G.—2½—90 with D. A. and that of an untrained primary teacher Rs. 35—1—40 with a pause of two years on Rs. 35.

There were five vocational and technical schools in the district. Three of which were run by Government. and two by private agencies. Of the five, four were vocational schools in which knowledge of agriculture and commerce was imparted and one was a technical school teaching commerce, technical subjects and fine arts. Ten teachers were employed in these schools, out of whom three were agricultural graduates and two commerce graduates.

There were 42 special schools of which four were arts schools, 23 gymnasia, one secondary teachers training institute, one language school, one music school, one school for defectives, and eight preprimary schools.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.
LAW.

SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THE CENTURY increasing number of persons has been following this profession. The profession includes practising lawyers, their clerks, petition writers etc. The Census of 1911 recorded the number of lawyers of all kinds including *kazis*, law agents and *mukhtiars* as 207 and the number of clerks and petition writers as 47. In 1931, the number of lawyers of all kinds was 269 and the number of clerks and petition writers 313. During these twenty years the number of practising lawyers, increased by 62 and the number of clerks and petition writers by 286. The figures for the year 1951 showed a slight decline in the number of practising lawyers, which stood at 249 and a great decrease in the number of clerks and petition writers, which stood at 120.

In the beginning of January, 1956 there were 15 courts in the districts. Of these one was District and Sessions Court, five courts of Judicial Magistrates, three courts of Civil Judges and six courts of Civil Judge-*cum*-Magistrates. Of the 342 lawyers including two women lawyers, one was a barrister.

The number of lawyers practising at different places was as follows : —

Kolhapur .	249
Gadhinglaj ...	23
Ichalkaranji ..	20
Kagal ..	14
Jaisingpur .	12
Radhanagari ..	8
Malkapur ...	7
Panhala ...	7

MEDICINE.

THE NUMBER OF PERSONS INCLUDING MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS of all kinds following the profession of medicine in 1911 was 136. of whom two were women. "Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc., numbered 88 of whom 36 were women". The 1931 census recorded 440 persons including 19 women as "registered medical practitioners" including oculists. Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, etc., numbered 15 of whom ten were men and five women. The census of 1951 recorded 858

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MEDICINE.

persons including 224 women as engaged in medical and other health services. These were composed of:—

Category.	Men.	Women.	Total.
Registered medical practitioners ..	173	13	186
Vaids and Hakims	128	4	132
Dentists	8	....	8
Veterinary surgeons	23	....	23
Vacinators	26	....	26
Hospitals and Health services ..	149	93	242
Compounders	125	3	128
Nurses	2	111	113
Total ..	634	224	858

MOTOR BODY BUILDING.

IN 1926, THERE WERE NINE MOTOR-REPAIRING WORKS engaging 13 employees. During 1946-47, there were 16 mechanical workshops and 23 motor-repairing works which engaged 239 persons. At the time of our survey there were 31 motor body building and repairing establishments in the city. They engaged 71 persons, out of whom 27 were members of owners' families. Most of these establishments were located in C ward. Only five were situated in A and B wards.

Three establishments of different sizes were surveyed in the sample. All of them were started after 1946.

Principal work carried out in establishments in the sample was repairing of motor engines and rehauling and oiling them. The occupation provided employment throughout the year.

The mechanical equipment in these concerns consisted of grinding mills, tools, jacks, files, etc. The cost of equipment in the three workshops was Rs. 700, 550 and 200 respectively. The annual repairing or overhauling charges of equipment were about Rs. 30, 20, and 15 respectively. The total capital investment in each of the three establishments was Rs. 3,000, 8,000 and 400.

A total of 17 persons was employed in the three establishments. One was exclusively managed by male members of the owners family, the other two had eight paid employees, of whom two were children. Each was paid a monthly salary ranging from Rs. 15 to Rs. 90. A motor body builder was paid Rs. 90 and unskilled workers Rs. 15 per month, Their working hours were six to eight per day.

CHAPTER 10. Miscellaneous Occupations. MOTOR BODY BUILDING.

All the workshops were situated in rented premises, the rent of which ranged from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per month. One of the workshops had to pay Rs. 12 as municipal licence fee per year and was spending Rs. 50 on advertisement. The total cost of maintenance of establishment of each was Rs. 830, 203, 45 per month. Raw materials used in these concerns consisted of kerosene and crude oil, mobile oil, steel plates, timber, oil cloth, canvas, bolts, and angles, etc. One workshop consumed raw materials worth Rs. 450 per month.

Two out of the three workshops did the work of motor body building and repairing and one was doing only repairing, cleaning and oiling. Usually orders were placed at these workshops by customers and business was more or less steady throughout the year. One of the establishments in the sample was reported to be running at a loss for want of sufficient work.

WATCH REPAIRING.

ROUND ABOUT 1926 AND 1947 THERE WERE 15 AND 32 WATCH REPAIRERS and dealers respectively in the town. Of the 32 shops in 1947. 14 were located in C ward, 10 in D ward, four in A ward, two each in B and E wards. At the time of our survey there were 31 such establishments. Of these 15 were situated in C ward, nine in E ward, four in B ward, three in A ward. The total number of persons employed in them was 62 out of whom 37 were members of owners. families and 25 paid employees. Three shops of different sizes were surveyed in the sample. Two shops had a business standing of more than 40 years and one had of more than 25 years. All the three shops in the sample had the main business of selling and repairing of watches. In addition to it one shop sold optical instruments. Watches and other spare parts were brought from Bombay, Poona and Calcutta. The equipment of these shops mainly consisted of a few pieces of furniture like one or two cupboards and chairs and the necessary instruments required for repairing watches. The cost of equipment in the biggest shop in the sample was about Rs. 2,200.

All the three shops were situated in rented premises. the rent of which varied from Rs. 10 to Rs. 80 per month. Other items of expenditure on the establishment were electric charges, municipal licence fee etc. The total electric bill of the three establishments was Rs. 51 per month. One of the establishments spent Rs. 40 per month, the other two only Rs. 11 per month on electricity. The biggest establishment paid Rs. 1,500 per year as municipal tax. The other two did not pay any tax.

The total employment in the three shops was 18 out of whom six were the members of employers' families. The biggest establishment employed 14 persons. The remaining two shops were managed by members of employers' families.

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WATCH REPAIRING.

A skilled watch-repairer in the biggest shop was paid Rs. 250 per month. The other two were paid Rs. 90 each and the remaining two Rs. 75 and 60 respectively. The total wage bill of the biggest establishment was Rs. 875 per month. The daily working hours in these shops were eight to ten.

These shops were mainly dealing in the sale and repairing of watches. Two units sold about 20 watches, and 10 alaram clocks, and did the work of repairing worth Rs. 250 per month. The third shop sold watches and optical instruments worth Rs. 9,000 and also did repairing work worth Rs. 1,800 per month. Watches were sold in the whole district. The season from October to June was usually brisk for the sale of watches.

PHOTO-FRAME MAKING.

PHOTO-FRAMING was one of the minor occupations in the city. The total number of establishments of photo-framers was 29, of which 12 were located in C ward, six and five in D and B wards and four and two in E and A wards respectively. Three shops were taken in the sample. One was started in 1925, the other in 1938 and the third in 1953.

Tools and equipment of these shops were tools required for making photo-frames and an instrument required for cutting glasses.

All the three shops in the sample were situated in rented premises. Rent of the smallest shop was Rs. 7 and of the biggest Rs. 85 per month. The total electric bill per month of the three together was Rs. 17 of which Rs. 10 was of the biggest establishment. The largest establishment was spending Rs. 120 and Rs. 50 respectively on municipal taxes and on advertisement.

Ply wood, sheet glasses, pictures, mirrors, card-boards, nails, etc. were the raw materials required for photo-framing. All these articles were purchased from local market The biggest shop in the sample consumed these articles worth Rs. 1,550, the other two worth Rs. 250 and Rs. 100 respectively per month.

The small shop in the sample was managed by the owner. In the other two shops four paid workers were employed. The worker who was making frames was paid Rs. 30 in one shop and Rs. 45 in the other. An unskilled worker was paid Rs. 20 per month.

The main occupation in all the three shops was photo-framing; in addition one shop was engaged in making boxes. Photo-frames were sold by one establishment to retail dealers. The other two shops received orders from customers and 90 per cent. of their production was sold in this way. The business was more or less steady throughout the year.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

COPPER AND BRASS SMITHY.

MAJOR GRAHAM IN HIS REPORT[1] RECORDED 15 COPPERSMITHS and as many sellers of copper and brass utensils in Kolhapur. The Old Gazetteer of Kolhapur recorded that there were about 70 families of copper-smiths or *tambats* and *kasars* in a few large towns of old Kolhapur State. The metal dealers at Kolhapur brought copper and brass sheets from Poona and Satara and occasionally from Sangli and sold them to local smiths at annas seven to eight per pound. They made water jars, mugs, and cooking-vessels from these raw materials. This craft was not particularly prosperous in Kolhapur owing to large imports of ready-made vessels from Nasik, Poona, Rajapur Satara and Shahapur.

Professor Modak in his report[2] on Industrial Survey of Kolhapur Territory said that all the copper and brass utensils for cooking and drinking required over this extensive territory were imported from Rajapur, Poona, Satara, Shahapur and Terdal. In 1894, the import of these vessels in Kolhapur town was worth Rs. 40,000. Dr. Balkrishna in his survey (1926) recorded 31 copper-smith shops with 71 employees and 16 establishments of dealers in brass and copper utensils with 19 employees. In 1947,[3] there were 29 establishments employing a total of 73 persons. Of these, 14 were in D ward, nine in A ward, and two each in B and C wards. There were 27 establishments of copper and brass-smiths at the time of our survey. Of these, 17 were located in C ward, six in B ward and four in A ward. The total employment in these shops was 44 persons.

Three shops of different sizes were taken in the sample survey. One of them was started in 1890 and two in 1941 and 1950 respectively. Copper and brass-smithy was the principal occupation of these shops and the employers were dependent on it throughout the year.

A total of 19 persons was engaged in the three establishments in the sample. Of these 17 were members of employers' families. A skilled worker who was making utensils was paid Rs. 40 per month in two shops and Rs. 45 in the other. The total wage bill of each establishment was Rs. 270. Rs. 120 and Rs. 120 per month.

The equipment in these shops was bellows, hammers, scissors and other tools. The cost of equipment in one of the establishments was about Rs. 500, in the other two it was about Rs. 250 each. The annual repairing charges of equipment varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 100 according to the quantum of equipment in the concerns.

[1] Op. cit., pp. 117-8.

[2] Op. cit., 1895, pp. 62-3.

[3] N. V. Sovani, Op. cit., pp. 72-3.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

COPPER AND BRASS SMITHY.

The necessary initial capital required for these establishments in the sample was raised by owners from their own resources. All the three were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 19 per month.

The main raw materials required were brass and copper sheets. They were supplied by shopkeepers who gave orders. The consumption of these materials per month of each shop was about 20, 12, and 8 Bengali maunds. Besides copper and brass, other raw materials required were tin, sulphuric acid, borax, salammoniac, tamarind and coal. Of these coal and tin were important. The consumption of coal of each shop varied from 15 to 20 maunds per month.

Most of the establishments received orders from local markets and very few from other parts of the district. The business was more or less steady throughout the year.

TINSMITHY.

THERE WERE 26 ESTABLISHMENTS OF TINSMITHS in the city at the time of the survey, 13 of which were located in C ward and 13 in A, B and D wards. The total employment in all the establishments was 37 out of whom 24 were members of employers' families. Three establishments were surveyed in the sample in which tinsmithy was the principal occupation providing employment throughout the year. Of these, two were started in 1924 and 1925 respectively and the third one in 1945. Capital resources required for starting establishments came from owners' own resources. Equipment of these establishments was scissors for cutting thin iron sheets, bellows, hammer and soldering iron rods. The cost of equipment possessed by each establishment varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50. The yearly repairing charges of equipment of each establishment varied from Rs. 5 to Rs. 20. The circulating capital employed in each of these shops varied from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125.

All the three establishments were situated in rented premises, the rent of which varied from Rs. 10-8-0 to Rs. 12 per month. Besides rent, other item of expenditure on maintenance of establishments was electric charges. The electric bill of each establishment was Rs. 2 per month.

Raw materials required were tin, lead. sulphuric acid, other alloys like zinc, nickel and coal. One of the establishments was consuming 15 ounces sulphuric acid, one lb. nickel and one lb. lead and one maund coal per month. The cost of raw materials it consumed was about Rs. 35 per month. The other two establishments were consuming raw materials worth Rs. 27 and Rs. 22 per month.

These establishments were managed by members of owners' families and no paid employees were engaged in them. The daily working hours observed in these shops were eight.

TINSMITHY.

Main work done in these shops was manufacture of minor items like small lanterns, funnels, and petty repair work like repairing of buckets, trunks and other articles. These shops received orders for repair work from local market. The net income of each shop varied from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per month. Articles made in the shops were sold in local market. Business was brisk during October and June. The margin of profit in all the three shops was very low.

CAP-MAKING.

IN 1926, THE NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS OF CAP-MAKERS in the city was ten out of which eight belonged to *shimpie* and two to other communities. In 1947, there were 17 concerns of cap and turban makers. Almost all concerns were located in C and B wards. There were 22 shops of turban and cap makers at the time of our survey. Of these 9 were located in D ward, 7 in C ward, 4 in B ward, and 2 in A ward.

Only three shops were surveyed in the sample. Of the three, one was started in 1938, the other in 1944, and the third in 1947. Cap-making was the principal occupation of these shops, which provided employment throughout the year. One concern was making turbans also.

Equipment for making caps consisted of pairs of scissors, threads, needles and sewing machines. Two concerns in the sample had two sewing machines each and the third had five machines. One establishment had two pairs of scissors, the other had five and the third 15. The total cost of equipment in one shop was about Rs. 2,600, in the other about Rs. 1,800 and in the third Rs. 1,500.

The necessary initial capital required was borrowed by two proprietors. The shops were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 25 to Rs. 35. The total electric bill of two establishments was Rs. 33 per month. One of the establishments had to pay Rs. 150 per year as municipal tax.

All the three shops were making caps, and in addition, one was making turbans. Two were specialised in making woollen, jari, Gandhi and folding caps. Raw materials required were woollen, cotton and jari, cloth, canvas, thread and straw board The consumption of woollen and cotton cloth of each shop per month was 600, 500 and 400 yards respectively. The consumption of jari and art silk cloth of two shops was 300 and 250 yards per month respectively. Woollen and art silk cloth was imported from Bombay and Jari cloth from Surat.

The three shops were managed by 31 persons out of whom five were members of employers' families and 26 paid-employees. A cap-maker was paid Rs. 50 in one shop and Rs. 60 in the other. A salesman was paid Rs. 60 per month in both the shops. A turban-maker was paid Rs. 60 per month. The total wage bill of each shop was Rs. 925, 300 and Rs. 100 respectively.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.
CAP-MAKING.

The monthly production of woollen, cotton and jari caps of the biggest shop in the sample was 2,000 and of the other two was 1,000 and 500 respectively. Similarly, the production of folding caps of the three shops was 1200, 800 and 400 respectively. These shops were manufacturing Gandhi caps also. The total production of these was 1200, 1,000 and 200 respectively. These caps were mostly sold to wholesale and retail dealers. The market for these goods was generally local as well as the whole Kolhapur district. In the two establishments, 25 per cent. of the production was sold directly to customers. The business in these shops was brisk during January to May.

AGARBATTI-MANUFACTURE AND DEALING HAIR OIL ETC.

AGARBATTI AND SANDAL WOOD STICKS are used to burn as incense while worshipping and on festivals and ceremonial occasions. There were 12 Agarbatti establishments in the city. Of these, three were surveyed in the sample. Agarbatti-manufacturing was the principal occupation in them, which provided employment throughout the year. The capital in the two establishments in the sample was raised by proprietors from their own resources. The third had incurred debt to raise it. He had borrowed about Rs. 2,000 for starting the establishment.

Two establishments in the sample were situated in rented premises. The rent of one was Rs. 10 and of the other Rs. 40. The third establishment was housed in the owned premises of the proprietor.

The total cost of production per month of the three establishments varied from Rs. 130 to Rs. 850. Raw materials such as scent, charcoal powder, sandal wood powder, bamboo, gum, wrapping paper, which were mostly purchased from local market as well as from Bombay, accounted for more than 60 to 70 per cent. of the total cost. Rent of the premises, transport and postage accounted for the rest. One of the establishments manufactured 2,556 bundles of agarbatti and earned about Rs. 150 net income per month. The bigger shop in the sample produced 10,100 agarbatti bundles and earned about Rs. 600 net income per month. The two establishments had two male and 10 female paid employees. Males were paid Rs. 50 and females Rs. 25 per month.

The process of manufacturing agarbatti consisted of making a dough out of a mixture of charcoal powder, scent, gum, and sandal powder in suitable proportions and fasting the mixture around long thin sticks of bamboo of roughly 9″ in length.

Products were directly sold to wholesale dealers. Business was more or less brisk throughout the year but sales were more from August to October than in the remaining period of the year and on the whole it was reported to be profitable.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

BARBERS.

Barbers are to be found all over the district. The census figures show that barbers numbered 1,533 in 1911 and 1,648 in 1931. The census of 1951 records their number as 1,287. Round about 1947 there were 165 barber's shops in Kolhapur city and a total of 170 persons were engaged in them. Of these, 57 were located in C ward, 41 in D ward, 30 in B ward, 20 in E ward and 17 in A ward[1]. A sample survey of 31 shops in 1957 revealed that in all the shops a total of 51 persons were engaged. Of these, 33 were owners, five members of the owners' families or their relatives and 13 hired workers. Of the latter, 12 were engaged on piece rate. They were paid half the amount charged to customers served by them. A worker got on an average Rs. 300 a year. In one shop in D ward a barber was employed on a fixed salary of Rs 22 per month.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

The 1951 Census shows the number of persons absorbed in domestic service as 4,027, of whom 1,140 were women. Persons included in this group are cooks, indoor servants, water carriers, grooms, coachmen, motor-car drivers, cleaners, etc. While the number employed in this occupation decreased between 1901, and 1911, it increased between 1911 and 1921. Between 1931 and 1951 however, there has been a decrease. The variations during the period 1901-1951 are shown below : –

Year.	Number of persons.
1901	.. N. A.
1911	... 2,980
1921	... 2,780
1931	... 5,341
1951	... 4,027

UMBRELLA, TRUNK AND LOCK MAKING.

There were 25 shops of dealers in Umbrellas, trunks, etc. in the city at the time of our survey. Of these shops 13 were located in B ward, eight in D ward and four in C ward.

Of these, only three were surveyed in the sample. Two shops were started before 1935 and one in 1943. Sale of umbrellas, locks, trunks, stationery and cutlery was the principal occupation in these shops, which provided employment throughout the year.

These shops dealt in manufactured goods. They purchased stationery and cutlery from local market as well as from Bombay and other places. They had petty instruments required for repairing locks and umbrellas, and a few cupboards. Two establishments had raised Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 2,000 each as initial capital by debt borrowed at 9 per cent. rate of interest. The debt was fully paid before 1956.

Two establishments were situated in rented premises. The rent of each was Rs. 25 and 65. The third shop was situated in the owned premises of the owner. The total electric bill of these three shops was Rs. 11 per month. Two shops had to pay Rs. 12 per year each as municipal licence fee.

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[1] *Ibid*., p. 202.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

UMBRELLA, TRUNK AND LOCK MAKING.

The biggest shop in the sample purchased stationery and cutlery worth Rs. 850 per month and the other two, worth Rs. 400 and 350 respectively. All the material required, was purchased from local market as well as brought from Bombay and other places. The shops were managed entirely by members of owners' families. The working hours in the shops were eight per day. The business was more or less steady throughout the year.

PERSONS LIVING ON UNEARNED INCOME.

THE CENSUS OF 1881 DID NOT SEPARATELY SHOW PERSONS LIVING ON PURELY UNEARNED INCOME. There was one classification in that census viz., "person of rank or property", but the number of such persons in that year was negligible. Most of the persons who lived on unearned income generally derived their income from rent of agricultural land, but this class of persons was not separately shown in that census. The 1911 census recorded two classes of such persons, viz., those who derived their income from the rent of agricultural land, those who derived it from property other than agriculture such as houses, and investments, or from pensions, or funds. The first class numbered 19,315 and the second 363. It is not, however, clear whether all those receiving agricultural rent were living purely on such rent or some of them had other occupations from which they supplemented their unearned income. The 1931 census was clearer. In that year the number of persons living purely on income from the rent of agricultural land was 7,123, while those who supplemented this income by following other occupations numbered 1,686. Those who lived purely on income from other kinds of property was 245, while those who supplemented this income by following other occupations was 54. The 1951 census recorded 6,935 persons as living on agricultural rent, of whom 2,225 had secondary means of livelihood and 4,710 persons as living on non-agricultural property, pensions, scholarships and other funds, etc.

RELIGION.

RELIGION has been a full time occupation and the main source of income of some persons in the district. Of such persons, the most numerous are the priests and ministers of religion and religious mendicants. Then there are those engaged in temples, and burial and burning ghats, inmates of monasteries; catechists, readers in churches and those in missionary services are also included. The number occupied in this profession decreased between the years 1911 and 1931. The following table shows the figures at the various censuses after 1911 :—

1911	... 2,239
1921	... 1,404
1931	... 838
1951	.. 530

CHAPTER 11—STANDARD OF LIFE.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of Life.
INTRODUCTION.

THE GENERAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL WELL-BEING OF A PEOPLE is reflected in the level of income and the pattern of their expenditure. To obtain a general idea of the standard of life of the people in a district, it is necessary to analyse the income and the pattern of expenditure of different sections of the people residing in its different parts. In this chapter, an attempt has been made to give in a broad outline the patterns of income and expenditure of the socially significant sections of the population in rural as well as in urban areas of the Kolhapur district. The account is based on a sample survey conducted in 1956 in a few representative villages and in Kolhapur city. While actual observations seem to corroborate the correctness of the broad outlines of the picture so revealed, complete statistical accuracy is not claimed for the results of the survey. It is very desirable that a study of the standard of life of people should be set against the background of the general economic conditions prevailing in the area in which they live. Some relevant economic data about the district are, therefore, given below.

With an area of about 2794 Sq. miles, Kolhapur district has a total population of 1,227 547, of whom 9,50 090 that is over 76 per cent. live in rural areas and 2,77,477, that is 24 per cent in urban areas.

The rural population of 9,50,090 is spread over 948 villages and the urban population of 2,77,000 resides in 18 towns and one city. The overwhelming preponderance of rural population indicates that agricultural classes have numerical predominance in the district. Owner-cultivators numbering about 6,63,073 constitute the bulk of agricultural population. The second largest group is that of tenant cultivators who number about 1,54,023. Landless labourers who are the lowest rung of the hierarchy of agricultural society, number about 84,636. The number of rent receivers is 26,533.

Very few people are attracted towards occupations incidental to farming. About 2,180 persons in both rural as well as urban areas are engaged in stock raising, 1,875 in rearing of

small animals and 250 in forestry. The number of persons engaged in allied agricultural occupations is very nearly 4,000. It is possible that, if proper incentive is given, more persons may find employment in these occupations.

Geographically, Kolhapur district can be divided into three zones : (1) Maval zone, (2) Transition zone, (3) Desh zone. Thirteen out of nineteen towns of Kolhapur district are located in the Transition zone. Two towns—Malkapur and Kodoli, are in the Maval zone and Jaisingpur, Kurundwad, Nandani and Shirol in the Desh zone.

The western part of the district is traversed by the ranges of the Sahyadris which have a very high altitude. The amount of rainfall in the western hilly belt is as high as about 200 inches. The central zone gets 50 to 80 inches and the third belt gets about 30 to 40 inches. There are as many as nine small and big rivers flowing placidly through the length and breadth of the district and they are amenable to irrigation with the help of which the area under sugarcane is expanding.

The soils in the Western Ghats are rocky or thin. Large area in this zone is under forest Some lands on the hills and on their slopes are used for *Kumri* cultivation. In the Maval zone they are of medium depth, and rice, groundnut, *kharif* jowar and sugar-cane are grown. In the rabi season, the rice lands grow pulses. The third zone has deep black soils, in which *kharif* jowar, tobacco, chillies and sugarcane are grown.

The forest area covers 3,10,521 acres of 11 per cent. of gross cropped area of the district. Wood represents a major item in the forest produce of the district. There are also minor products like *kajri* fruits, honey wax, *apta* or *temburni* leaves, *sawat* cotton, *shembi* bark, etc.

The divergence of the geographic and climatic conditions accounts for the economic variations obtaining from tract to tract. Naturally, the peasantry in the Desh zone with deep black soil and ample water facilities and in the transition belt with brown soil and ample irrigation facilities are better-off than the cultivators in the remaining part of the district. These areas are densely populated and have attained a considerable degree of industrialisation. They can be said to have presented a brighter picture with better avenues of employment and supplementary means of livelihood than the forest areas and hilly tracts of the district.

The non-agricultural population is 2,99,282 out of which 1,87,480 resides in towns and cities and about 1,11,802, in rural areas. More than a lakh persons are employed in rural as well as in urban industries. Apart from agriculture and industries, the other avenues of employment are commerce, transport and

other miscellaneous items. Whereas Vadgaon, Jaisingpur, Kurundwad and Malkapur are the important commercial centres, Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji and Hupari are important both as industrial and commercial centres. The urban centres on account of their more complex economic and social life open up avenues of employment for domestic servants, porters, hawkers, tongawalas etc. Standard of living in urban areas is naturally different from that in rural areas.

RURAL AREAS.

An assessment of the standard of life of the rural population presents certain difficulties. In rural areas, several barter transactions take place even now in agricultural produce and it is very difficult to bring out their full economic significance. Almost all rural classes are, in one way or other, connected with the cultivation of land. They claim share in the agricultural produce. Some cultivators' families supplement their income from the main occupation with the help of their relatives residing in urban areas. In these circumstances, absolutely clear-cut differentiation in occupations and economic classes is not possible; nor is the monetary allocation of income into different channels of expenditure altogether realistic. All the same, this account can only proceed on the basis of occupations and on calculations of money earnings and money expenditure. The following description gives a general but fairly correct outline of the economic picture of the district. The villages selected for the rural survey are shown below :—

	Village.	Taluka.	Population.
1	Latgaon	Ajra	603
2	Uttur	Do.	4,168
3	Achirne	Bavda	1,480
4	Bhoibavada	Do.	1,565
5	Tambyacchi Wadi	Bhudargad	729
6	Pimpalgaon	Do.	1,412
7	Kadgaon	Do.	1,2[illegible]8
8	Madyal	Gadhinglaj	[illegible]32
9	Nesari	Do.	2,52[illegible]
10	Hatkanangale	Do.	1,109
11	Ghunaki	Hatkanangale	3,520
12	Hatkanangale	Do.	3,[illegible]14
13	Shiroli	Do.	3,992
14	Madyal	Kagal	2,980
15	Sangaon (Kasba)	Do.	4,313

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	Village.	Taluka.	Population.
16	Kaneri	Karvir	2,395
17	Dindnerli	Do.	2,272
18	Washi	Do.	1,783
19	Kale	Panhala	2,428
20	Panhala (Kasaba)	Do.	2,573
21	Satve	Do.	2,808
22	Tarale	Radhanagari	1,224
23	Rashiwade	Do.	3,752
24	Radhanagari	Do.	3,207
25	Rethare	Shahuwadi	1,245
26	Save	Do.	1,273
27	Dattawad	Shirol	3,743
28	Kondigre	Do.	557

BIG FARMERS.

What may be described as the top stratum of the village community consists of bigger cultivators who cultivate their land with their own hired labour and who possess holdings of a substantial size. The cultivation of large sized holdings necessarily implies the maintenance of more than one pair of bullocks and a larger number of implements. It is customary to express the size of farming business in terms of the number of bullocks a cultivator maintains. Those cultivators who come in this category generally possess more than one pair of bullocks. The average number of bullocks per family as revealed by the survey came to about three. In addition to bullocks, each family had on an average. four other animals including cows, buffaloes and goats.

The families of these big cultivators were conspicuous by their very size and composition. These families, in which grown-up sons and their wives, brothers and their wives, parents and other near relations lived under the same roof, furnished the pattern of the joint family system. Occasionally even a devoted servant found a well-recognised place in it. It would be quite interesting to contrast this characteristic of the family of the substantial farmer with that of his urban counterpart, who though economically on the same plane, has a much smaller family. The average size of such a family was about nine including three minors in the 15 samples selected, though it would not be surprising. if one comes across a family of 21 members in this class.*

*The recognition of a person of the age of 12 or above as a full adult unit for cereal consumption and a person below that age limit as half a unit has been widely accepted. In this chapter the unit of membership of a family is computed on this basis.

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BIG FARMERS.

Except the very old, no male members of the families in the sample were illiterate. Boys of school-going age were educated till the final primary stage and were sent to secondary schools thereafter. The percentage of literacy among males in these families was 77 and among females, 51. Of the total literate male members, 75 per cent. had received primary education, 19 per cent. secondary education and 6 per cent. college education. Among the literate females, 88 per cent. had received primary education and 12 per cent. secondary education. No women in these families had received any college education. One male full time servant was attached to each family. Generally grown-up girls and boys of this class of families received education in nearby cities and towns.

Out of the total number of members of the fifteen families. there were on an average five earners and four dependants per family. All the five earning members were employed in agricultural occupation. The economic responsibility for the maintenance of the family unit largely devolved upon the shoulders of the male members.

The main occupation of all these fifteen families was agriculture but only one followed it as a subsidiary occupation. As farming was the family occupation, every member had something to do with it Female members did not perform agricultural operations involving heavy labour They helped household and farm work in such ways as care of cattle. carrying of meals, hoeing of land and similar light operations. Besides attending to their studies in schools children and grown-up boys of school-going age helped their parents in household and occasionally in farm work.

Quite a few farmers owned their houses. Each family in the sample had on an average three houses Though the houses were not designed according to modern ideas, they were quite spacious and built to suit the variations and requirements of climate. The families also provided cattle sheds for milch and farm cattle which were their prized assets. The average annual income of a family in this group was about Rs. 7,000 which included income from main as well as from subsidiary occupations of all the members, house rent and interest. It is not possible to calculate precisely the income in monetary terms as the families grew their own food, lived in their own houses, paid in kind for services rendered by others and for the things they bought. However, an attempt has been made. wherever possible, to present calculations of money earnings and money expenditure. Each family on an average saved Rs. 1,200 per annum and had a debt of Rs. 4,000. Out of the fifteen families, four families had no debt, five had between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000, four between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000 and two above Rs. 10,000.

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Out of the annual income derived from all sources, round about Rs. 800 were annually spent on clothing, Rs. 150 on socio-religious customs like birth, death, marriage, etc., Rs. 100 on medicines and about Rs. 200 on repairs of houses and implements. The annual expenditure on charity and donations amounted to Rs. 50.

For food grains, dairy products, vegetables and fuel these farmers depended upon the produce of their own farms and cattle. In view of the large size of the farms and sufficient number of cattle, adequacy of these articles was easily assured. The monthly expenditure on an average worked out at Rs. 150 on items like cereals, pulses, milk, ghee, fruits, vegetable, eggs, mutton, fish, tea, oil, spices, tobacco, etc. Rs. 30 on fuel and lighting, Rs. 20 on servants, Rs. 200 on miscellaneous items like toilet, dhobi, barber, entertainment, and travelling and Rs. 10 on education.

Thus the expenditure pattern of these families indicates that their income was such that adequacy on all these items was not only easily assured, but it left some surplus, which was reflected in their savings both in kind and in cash. While these farmers were not averse to the use of earthen pots and jars, they possessed sufficient brass and copper vessels. It was among this class of the village folk that the so-called urban articles of comfort like a cupboard, a time-piece and other items of furniture, and even a motor car were found. They had also a few gold and silver ornaments.

By the recent land legislation, the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1956, a ceiling has been imposed upon individual holdings. A cultivator is not allowed to keep land in excess of 48 acres for personal cultivation. Many landlords, therefore, have divided their properties among their inheritors so as to avoid the applicability of the Act.

MEDIUM CULTIVATORS.

If the big cultivator is the aristocrat of the village, the medium cultivator is a constituent of the usual middle class or the peasantry. He stands between the aristocrat at the top and that group of villagers who are part time farmers or landless labourers at the bottom. This class consists of cultivators who not only cultivate holding of economic size owned entirely or partly by them but also possess labour power and cattle wealth of economic size. The average size of the family holdings was about 13 acres in the sample of 41 families. Each family on an average possessed one pair of bullocks and two buffaloes and a cow.

The average size of the family was neither big nor small It had five adults and about three children. The maximum number of members one family had was 14. These families owned major portion of their land they cultivated and had on an average one house each. Grown-up boys and girls were

taking education either in primary or in secondary schools. Besides education, they helped their parents in spare time in agricultural operations. The women in these families were engaged both in household activities and agricultural operations on the family land.

The main occupation of all the families in the sample was farming. Only a few earning dependants were engaged in tailoring. On an average, the family had one earning member, three earning dependants and four non-earning dependants. Though the economic responsibility for the maintenance of the family devolved upon the male members, the contribution of women and grown-up boys towards the family income was considerable, unlike in the class of big cultivators.

The average annual income of a family in this group was about Rs. 2,200. But as in the case of their more substantial compeers, the fact that they mostly rely on their own produce for food grains, vegetables, fuel and dairy products makes a precise assessment of monetary expenditure on various items rather difficult. But it can be definitely stated that, though not so well off as the big cultivators, a state of tolerable adequacy seemed to be more or less assured to this group, in so far as these items were concerned.

On an average these families spent Rs. 260 on clothes, Rs. 120 on festivals and other ceremonies, guests and charity per year. Despite the absence of a perceptible margin of surplus these families spent a significant sum on charity. They spent on an average Rs. 30 on repairing their houses. The annual expenditure on medicines per family was between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50.

The average monthly expenditure of a family was Rs. 34 on cereals and pulses, Rs. 10 on milk and milk products. Rs. 4 on edible oils, Rs. 6 on servants, Rs. 5 on washing and shaving and Rs. 2 on education. *Gul* and sugar claimed Rs. 5, fuel and kerosene Rs. 10 and cosmetics and dry fruits Rs. 2. They spent Rs. 4 on travel and Rs. 4 on *pan-supari*, bidi, etc.

The income of this class of farmers was fairly adequate to meet their minimum demands, which was indicated by the fact that out of the 41 families in the sample only 21 had debts varying from Rs. 100 to Rs. 2,000. Families having large debts borrowed mostly for productive purposes. Seventeen families in the sample saved between Rs. 100 and Rs. 1,000 per annum.

The belongings of these families were confined to articles of daily use in which brass and copper vessels were considerable in number. Pieces of furniture like tables, chairs and cots were also found with some families. They also possessed a few golden ornaments and valuable clothes.

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MEDIUM CULTIVATORS.

Of the total number of males in these families 67 per cent. were literate. About 95 per cent. of the literate males took primary and 5 per cent. secondary education. Among the female members 20 per cent. were literate. Most of them took only primary education.

The prosperity or otherwise of this rural middle class, who marginally balanced their budgets depended upon the vagary of monsoons. A little rise in food prices or cash crops immediately elevated their economic position. It helped this class wipe out their marginal debts. On the other hand a little worsening of the economic situation by way of agricultural depression was enough to affect it to some extent.

TENANT CULTIVATORS.

Just above the lowest rung of the agricultural ladder stands the class of tenant cultivators whose position was certainly not enviable. It is no doubt true that the recent land legislation has conferred upon them the right of occupancy on the land they cultivate and reduced a number of difficulties. Government have taken certain positive steps to improve the economic condition of the cultivators and among them can be included long-term financing, irrigation, seed supply, co-operative development among others, but it is apprehended that the same may take a long time to accomplish the desired results.

The survey revealed that the actual number of acres cultivated by the cultivator was between 5 and 10. The average size of the family of these tenants was considerably smaller than that of either big or medium cultivators. The average size of the family, as revealed by the sample survey composed of 38 families, comprised six persons including two children. The lowest number of members in these families was three. Each family had a pair of bullocks or buffaloes and two other cattle. It was also found that tenant cultivators did not possess all the necessary agricultural implements. Almost every family in the sample had a house. But this housing accommodation depicted a picture of most unhygienic surroundings, as human beings, cattle, hay and fodder and agricultural implements were all huddled together in the same house which was mostly a *kaccha* construction.

A family in the sample had usually two earners and four other dependants including two minors. Almost all earners and earning dependants were engaged in agricultural operations. A few earning dependants were either engaged in tailoring or employed in service. Females in their families worked side by side with male members either on their own land or on the land of others. The independent earnings of women and grown-up boys were rarely included in the income of the family. They did not help in removing their poverty but helped to meet some of their wants. About 44 per cent. of the total number of males in these families were literate. The literacy among females was hardly 5 per cent.

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TENANT CULTIVATORS.

The average annual income of these families was Rs. 1,100 the highest being Rs. 1,500 and the lowest Rs. 100. Thirteen families in the sample were in debt which varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 2,000. The total amount of debt of these thirteen families was Rs. 7,100. The other families were just marginally maintaining themselves and had no saving to their credit.

Of the total annual income of a family Rs. 150 were spent annually on clothing and Rs. 300 on house repairs, purchase of fodder, implements, medical care, pilgrimage, social and religious customs, etc. Their average monthly expenditure worked out to Rs. 50 on cereals, pulses, milk, ghee, oil, spices, tea, *pan* and tobacco, Rs. 6 on fuel and Rs. 4 on miscellaneous items like washing, shaving, education, travelling, etc. These items do not include rent the tenant cultivator paid for the land he cultivated. Thus, almost all these families had deficit budgets.*

LANDLESS LABOURERS.

At the lowest rung of the agricultural ladder stands the class known as the agricultural proletariat or landless labourers. This class has no land nor does it have any milch or agricultural cattle. It earns its earning entirely by working as labourers. The wages it earns may be in kind or in cash. Some labourers may have some land; but their holdings may be so tiny in size and income derived from them so meagre that it becomes almost impossible for them to eke out a living from farm income alone. More often than not work on the land of others is the only employment easily available to them.

The family of such labourers is generally small The average size of a family in the fifty samples consisted of five including two minors. They maintained neither draught nor milch animals. Their small houses, which could be rightly called as huts, seemed to be all they possessed.

The majority of such labourers were illiterate, hardly 25 per cent. of the total being literate. Only 5 per cent. of the women were literate. Children of the school-going age were generally sent to school. But many of them had to give up education at the age when it became possible for them to work and earn. The womenfolk had to supplement the family means by taking up agricultural labour of a lighter type like reaping, weeding, etc.

It is difficult to speak of a regular family budget of this class of people, as the tenor of their life was fluctuating from day to day. But it can be said that they could just satisfy their primary wants during the days of employment. The agriculturally busy seasons involving, sowing, harvesting, weeding.

*The information in this section was collected prior to the enforcement of the amendment to the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1956, which conferred occupancy rights upon tenant cultivators. This has presumably led to some improvement in the general economic conditions.

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etc. meant enough food for them as they and their women got employment during this period. They then purchased clothing and some other articles. Their daily budgets showed the absence of provision for milk, ghee and entertainment and a negligible provision for *gul*, oil, sugar and vegetables. They had no basic agricultural implements required for physical labour. These families did not possess any valuable ornaments.

The average income of such a family in the sample hardly exceeded Rs. 450 per annum. The average annual expenditure on clothes was Rs. 80 and that on other items like medicines, house repairs etc. only Rs. 15. Rs. 20 were spent every month on cereals and pulses, Rs. 2 on edible oil and spices and Rs. 2 on sugar, gul and tea. Cost of fuel varied from village to village as in some villages it was gathered free from the forest; while in others it was purchased. No expenditure was incurred on items such as education, entertainment and cosmetics, etc.

Notwithstanding the disparity between irrigated and dry, secure and insecure tracts, resulting in disparities in incomes and productivity of this class, it can be said that on the whole agricultural labour was hardly able to meet even its primary needs.

VILLAGE ARTISANS.

The village artisans are still to a large extent treated as servants of the village community. They are remunerated by "Aya" or baluta system. The main components of this class are *sutar* (carpenter), and *nhavi* (barber). It is interesting to note that the traditional system of offering services more or less on the basis of barter still continued to function to a great extent in the villages surveyed by us. The average size of the family as revealed in the sample containing 54 families was 6 including two minors. Of their total male population 63 per cent. and of the female population nine per cent. were literate. Women were generally engaged in household work, though some of them also helped their male members in the family occupation.

On an average each family had a house. Two families had three and four houses respectively, whereas eight families had no houses at all. Their houses were big enough to provide room for keeping the instruments required for their occupation. Twenty families had land below one acre each, five families had below two acres each, two families had above five acres each and 27 families were landless. Nearly half the number of families had both milch and draught cattle. They possessed instruments and equipment of their respective trade.

Calculated in monetary terms, the average annual income of a family was about Rs. 1,100. Grains obtained as *baluta* ensured a good initial stock of food stuff. But the produce so obtained did not suffice for the whole year and they had to purchase foodgrains required for the remaining part of the year.

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VILLAGE ARTISANS.

Of the total income, a family spent annually on an average Rs. 190 on clothes, Rs. 25 on socio-religious functions, charity and help to others, Rs. 10 on travelling, Rs. 17 on medical care and Rs. 10 on house repairs. Its average total monthly expenditure on food grains, milk, edible oils, spices, vegetables, tea and coffee, fuel etc. was Rs. 58 per family, Rs. 25 were spent on food grains, Rs. 4 on milk and milk products, Rs. 6 on edible oil and spices and sugar, Rs. 2 on vegetables, Rs. 3 on tea and coffee, Rs. 10 on fuel, Re. 1 on cosmetics among other things. Twenty-eight families in the sample had a total debt of Rs. 8,000. Only ten families could save very little, as the savings of each did not exceed Rs. 20 per year. Only two families saved Rs. 50 and Rs. 65 respectively.

Thus, it can be said that most of these artisans were able to make both ends meet with great difficulty. The notable characteristic of the occupations followed by these artisans is that they were seasonal. Carpenters, blacksmiths, leather workers were employed for six or seven months in a year. During the days of their unemployment they take up agricultural labour to supplement their income.

TRADERS.

Traders form another distinct social group in the village. It should, however, be emphasised that the size of business of traders in different villages and of traders in the same village, too varies considerably. All villages having a population of not less than 1,000 have at least one village grocer. The number is larger, if the village is a big market place or a trade centre.

Though village traders deal with selling, buying and money lending, it was revealed that in the sample of about 25 families, only three families did the business of money-lending. They lent money on credit to cultivators and realised it during harvest.

Most of these traders in the villages were local people. They were not immigrants. The size of the family in this class was medium, as it consisted of four adults and two minors Near relations lived and worked together. Some families owned milch cattle. On an average each family had two heads of cattle.

The budgets of such traders showed enough provision for all items of expenditure. The grocers' investment was between Rs. 1,000 and 2,000 and they replenished their stock either weekly or monthly, as the case may be, depending on the turnover of business. The annual average income of a trader in the sample was Rs. 2,000 The family spent on an average Rs. 170 on clothing, Rs. 100 on socio-religious observances, guests and charity, Rs. 30 on travelling, Rs. 40 on medical care and Rs. 25 on house repairing per year. The monthly expenditure on an average was Rs. 80 on all food articles, Rs. 10 on fuel, Rs. 20 on servants, entertainment,

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education and cosmetics and Rs. 5 on house rent. The budget figures of the families did not disclose a satisfactory economic condition. More than half the families in the sample were in debt the amount of which varied from Rs. 400 to Rs. 1,000 per family.

VAIDYAS AND MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS.

Besides traders, there are village *vaidyas* and medical practitioners in villages. About 160 persons were engaged in this occupation. Ten families were taken in the sample. The average size of a family consisted of six persons including two minors. Their main occupation was to serve medicines to the villages. Three families had cultivable land of about 60 acres. The average annual income of a family was round about Rs. 1,500. Of their total income, they spent on an average Rs. 140 on clothing, Rs. 40 on medical care and Rs. 120 on other items like travelling, socio-religious observances, charity and Rs. 10 per year on house repairing per annum. Their average monthly expenditure was Rs. 53 on all food articles, Rs. 7 on fuel, Rs. 3 on house rent, Rs. 12 on education, entertainment and travelling. Only one of the ten families had a debt of Rs. 400. The budgets of these families revealed that their income and expenditure more or less balanced each other.

PRIMARY TEACHERS

Twenty-one families of primary teachers were taken in the sample which consisted on an average of six persons including two minors, had more or less the same pattern of expenditure as village physicians. The average annual income of a family was Rs. 1,400, out of which on an average Rs. 150 were spent annually on clothing, Rs. 24 on medical care, Rs. 8 on house repairing and Rs. 50 on travelling, charity, socio-religious observations etc. Monthly expenditure included items like food, fuel, education, house-rent, cosmetics, travelling etc. The average expenditure per month on all the food articles was Rs. 50, on fuel Rs. 8 and on education Rs. 11 etc. About half the families were in debt. Sixteen families had some savings, the average amount saved being about Rs. 250 per year per family.

Concluding Remarks.

This analysis of the budgets of some families representing different economic classes in the village, can be said to present, though not in strictly accurate statistical terms, a broad picture of the rural levels of living.

It will be clear that except for the small minority of big cultivators the majority of the population live either on or below the margin of subsistence. The landless labourer and the petty landholder, who are wage-earners for most of the time, seem to be perpetually in a precarious condition. They form a substantial portion of the community and there is no doubt that with better opportunities of employment in the planned economic development of the country and with better methods of farming, there will be a perceptible improvement

in their condition. The medium-size cultivator may be in a slightly better position in the sense that, in normal times, his income may just suffice to cover his expenditure. Even in his case, however, the line of demarcation between balancing the budget and falling into a deficit is quite thin and once the balance is upset and indebtedness starts, the financial malaise goes on deepening with very disastrous results. This category, along with artisans, forms a substantial sector of the village community and even if the annual income of an individual family is found to range from Rs. 1,100 to Rs. 2,200, when distributed over its members, it will be found per head to be less than the per capita national income of Rs. 272. It will be noticed that except in the case of families of big cultivators, the proportion of non-consumption expenditure to total income, which can be considered as a barometer for studying the planes of living, is very inadequate. Food alone takes up about 50 per cent. or even more of the income. Very little margin is, therefore, left for acquiring other amenities which are essential for civilised life. However, in comparison to the western zone, the peasantry in the eastern zone enjoys a better standard of living. This is mainly due to the significant role the cash crops like sugarcane, oil seeds and tobacco play in the economy of the region.

Urban Areas.

ABOUT 2,77,000 PERSONS IN THE DISTRICT LIVE IN URBAN AREA which consists of 19 towns. But of these, 15 towns have a population of between 5,000 and 10,000, one between 10,000 and 20,000, one between 20,000 and 50,000, one above one lakh and one below 5,000. Ten towns have municipalities. Though places with a population of 5,000 and above are classified as towns, it may be pointed out that population alone cannot be the sole criterion for distinguishing the urban area from the rural area. This is illustrated by the fact that some places which are classified as towns in the census have characteristics not very different from those of villages. The village is associated with a predominantly agricultural population and the town with a non-agricultural population. In determining, therefore, what constitutes the urban area in the real sense, these factors cannot be forgotten. Thus, not all the towns listed in the Census can be regarded as towns or cities. Only a few cities and towns like Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Vadgaon and Malkapur can be considered to be urban. One of them, namely, Kolhapur was selected for the sample survey. The following table presents the population of towns by livelihood classes :—

TABLE No. 1.

POPULATION OF TOWNS BY LIVELIHOOD CLASSES.

Name.	Production other than cultivation.	Commerce.	Transport.	Other services and Miscellaneous sources.	Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.	Cultivators, Cultivating labourers and their dependants.
1. *Ajra*—						
Ajra	689	750	76	1,172	510	2,157
2. *Gadhinglaj*—						
Gadhinglaj	1,019	1,207	110	1,919	1,087	3,204
3. *Hatkanangle*—						
Ichalkaranji	11,786	2,530	359	5,917	581	6,250
Hupari	1,741	396	17	393	82	4,410
Vadgaon	1,811	1,146	102	1,212	135	1,867
Pattankodoli	364	87	15	357	29	5,141
Kumbhoj	274	58	7	343	29	5,257
Rukadi	382	270	73	942	79	3,629
Alte Kasba	503	179	5	323	160	4,036

4. *Kagal*						
Kagal	1,310	816	108	2,897	809	3,878
Murgund	837	496	25	730	304	3,245
Kapashi	737	250	11	463	210	1,891
5. *Karvir*--						
Kolhapur	30,001	24,109	6,045	59,695	6,423	10,562
6. *Panhala*--						
Kodoli (Kasaba)	1,012	417	82	1,492	306	4,288
Malkapur	571	860	116	1,174	86	492
Shirol	250	341	132	1,543	413	7,452
Kurundwad	1,197	1,341	182	2,178	336	4,510
Jaisingpur	1,207	2,397	282	2,590	207	1,365
Nandani	660	311	1	277	78	4,372
Total ..	56,351	37,961	7,751	85,417	11,972	78,005

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URBAN AREAS.

Apart from the composition of livelihood classes, there are other characteristics of an urban area. The price increases which have occurred since 1943, in various articles of daily consumption including housing accommodation have affected the urban and rural areas in different degrees. Even after making an allowance for a certain number of articles which are sold dearer in villages than in towns, it remains broadly true, that the cost of living in a town is somewhat higher than that in a village, with but one important reservation. The development of quick transport in the countryside has in many places tended to remove the difference in prices of a number of articles in the villages or in the towns. Mention may be made of articles like milk, milk products, vegetables produced, in villages but sold with a very small price difference in the towns nearby. But as one goes into the interior, the price difference of such articles becomes apparent. In most important towns, the increase in the number of houses has not been commensurate with the growth of population during the last decade. Rents have, as a result, increased considerably with the result that there is overcrowding everywhere. The housing situation in the villages is not so acute as in the towns and the difference in the cost of housing affects materially the standard of living of the people in urban and rural areas.

THE WELL-TO-DO.

Among the well-to-do classes can be included big landlords, prosperous businessmen and highly placed Government officials. The average well-to-do family can be said to have an income from Rs. 4,000 to Rs. 5,000 a year. Except where the size of the family is very large, families earning about Rs. 4,000 a year lead a comfortable life and are able to save enough for the exigencies of life. With increase in income, the expenditure on articles of daily consumption remains more or less constant as long as prices are stable, but expenditure on articles of luxury and real property like houses tends to increase. The well-to-do classes can be easily distinguished firstly by the type of houses they live in, secondly by the extent of the household equipment and thirdly, by the higher expenditure on certain items of daily consumption. The household equipment generally includes costly furniture, radios or gramophones and costly clothes and ornaments. They spend generally more on milk, fruits, vegetables, education and entertainment. Employment of a full time servant for domestic work is another feature of this class.

It is revealed by the survey that these families spent from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 per month on entertainment. Expenditure on travelling and ceremonies varied from family to family from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 per year.

The following account shows the expenditure pattern of the families of the pleader, and of a high salaried government official.

THE WELL-TO-DO.

The family of a pleader consisted of three adults and two children above six years. All the adult members of the family were literate. Both the children attended school. The family had no agricultural land nor a house. Its income was Rs. 600 per month. Out of which, it spent annually Rs. 400 on clothing, Rs. 100 on medical care, Rs. 300 on travelling and Rs. 300 on charity. Items like food and fuel cost Rs. 100 per month. It spent Rs. 20 on education and Rs. 50 on house rent and servant. It saved more than Rs. 2,000 per year. The family could save this amount, as its size was small. The second budget was that of a high salaried government official whose income was Rs. 700 per month. The size of the family consisted of seven adults and two minors below six years. All the persons in the family were educated except the minors. The family had no agricultural land but a house. Annually it spent about Rs. 850 on clothing, medical care, travelling, house repairing and charity and Rs. 450 on food, fuel, education, servant and entertainment per month. After meeting all the expenditure it saved round about Rs. 1,500 per year.

In the sample survey the pattern of expenditure of rich families whose income was about Rs. 1.200 per month was more or less the same as that of the well-to-do. Few variations in respect of periodical expenditure were observed here and there. The annual savings of these families varied from Rs. 3,000 to 5,000 per year.

SMALL TRADERS.

It is not possible to define a small trader, because such a definition will vary from area to area in the context of the general economic condition. From what we observed about the economy of Kolhapur district, it appeared, that traders having a monthly income of between Rs. 150 and Rs. 300 can be said to belong to the group of small traders. The samples chosen for survey belonged more or less to this group. They included dealers in grocery, cloth, stationery, oil, fuel, bidis, *pohe*, sweetmeats and flowers. Most of them had some property in the shape of agricultural land or houses or valuable ornaments.

The average number of members in a family of small traders as revealed by the survey was six including one minor. Children of school-going age in these families went to school and women did household work. In a few families, they helped male earners in their occupations.

There was a family of a trader dealing in ready-made clothes. It consisted of three adults and one child below six years. One of the members was literate. The family had a house and earned an income of Rs. 150 per month. It spent Rs. 1,000 on clothing per year. The expenditure per month was Rs. 25 on food grains, Rs. 5 on milk and milk products. Rs. 5 on sugar and gur, Rs. 5 on vegetables and Rs. 9 on fuel. The family had a few copper and brass utensils together with some earthen pots. It had no valuable ornaments.

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The second family surveyed was of a *Kirana* merchant. It consisted of three adults and two children above six years. The family had ten acres of agricultural land. Its monthly income was Rs. 350. It spent Rs. 300 on clothing, Rs. 25 on medical care and Rs. 30 on travelling in a year. The expenditure on food grains was Rs. 40, on milk and milk products Rs. 25, on edible oil, Rs. 5, on sugar and gur Rs. 7, on vegetables, Rs. 3, on tea and coffee, Rs. 5 and on fuel Rs. 12 per month. The family was housed in rented premises, the rent of which was Rs. 35 per month. It spent Rs. 20 on education of children and was well-equipped with utensils, brass as well as copper, and had some valuable ornaments and a radio set.

The third family surveyed was of a merchant dealing in *pohe* and *churmure*. It consisted of three adults and one minor. One of the members of the family was literate. The family had landed property of three acres of agricultural land and a house. Its monthly income was Rs. 80. The expenditure pattern of the family was as follows :—Rs. 85 on clothing and Rs. 10 on medical care per annum and Rs. 30 on foodgrains, Rs. 7 on milk and milk products, Rs. 5 on edible oils. about Rs. 10 on tea, coffee, and sugar, Rs. 8 on fuel and Rs. 8 on house rent per month. The family was not well furnished with utensils. It had no furniture in its possession but had all the necessary equipment for making *pohe* and *churmure*.

CLERICAL AND PROFESSIONAL CLASS.

The clerical and professional class includes the lower and middle strata of salaried persons employed in Government or private offices and some professionals like doctors and lawyers. The income of this class varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 per family, per month. Possession of some property like houses is more frequent in this class than in the classes of skilled labourers or small traders. Income from agricultural land that this class derived has been practically vanished now. The size of the family is generally larger in this category. It gets a regular monthly income fairly enough to satisfy its primary physical needs.

The household equipment of this class is adequate to give them fair comfort. These families usually possess a few brass and copper utensils and a few mattresses. Cotton and woollen blankets and shawls form their bedding. Some families were found to possess a few pieces of furniture, a time piece, a radio or a bicycle. A few of them had valuable ornaments in their possession.

The following paragraphs contain a description of expenditure of five families, belonging to this class having monthly incomes varying from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300.

The family having an income of Rs. 100 per month consisted of ten adults of whom two were earning members. It had no landed property besides a house. It was a joint family whose annual expenditure on clothing was Rs. 200, on medical care

Rs. 20, on charity, travel etc. Rs. 60 and on house repairs Rs. 50. Expenditure on food and fuel claimed nearly half of its income. Education of one member claimed Rs. 50 per month. Expenditure on entertainment and toilet did not find a place in its budget.

The second family showing a monthly salary of Rs. 135 had an income of Rs. 400 per year from agricultural land. The family consisted of two literate adults and one minor child. The annual expenditure on items like clothing, charity, medical care, travelling, etc. was recorded as Rs. 250 and the monthly expenditure was recorded as Rs. 122. Of this amount Rs. 20 were spent each on foodgrains, milk and milk products, Rs. 5 on edible oils, Rs. 12 on sugar, tea and coffee, Rs. 10 on fuel, Rs. 20 on house rent and Rs. 25 on miscellaneous items. The family had a surplus of Rs. 20 per month.

The third family had an income of Rs. 200 per month and an annual income of Rs. 300 from agricultural land. It consisted of four adults and one child of six years. All the persons in the family except one adult were literate. Its annual expenditure on items like clothing, medical care. charity, travelling, house repairs etc. was Rs. 375. The other monthly expenditure was recorded as Rs. 150. Of this amount, Rs. 30 were spent on grains, Rs. 20 on milk and milk products, Rs. 6 on edible oils, Rs. 20 on sugar, tea, coffee and vegetables, Rs. 15 on fuel and Rs. 50 on all other remaining items. It had a saving of Rs. 200 per year.

The fourth family was of a secondary teacher whose income was Rs. 165 per month and annual farm income Rs. 150. This family consisted of six adults and two minors. Five adult members of the family were literate. Two of them were taking college education and three secondary education. There was only one earning member. The pattern of periodical expenditure of the family was more or less the same as that of other families described above. It spent Rs. 30 on grains, Rs. 15 on milk and milk products, Rs. 10 on edible oils. Rs. 12 on sugar and gul, Rs. 9 on tea, coffee and dry fruits, Rs. 14 on fuel, Rs. 35 on house rent and Rs. 5 on entertainment. The family had annual savings of Rs. 200.

The fifth family surveyed was of a college teacher, whose income was Rs. 300 per month. The family consisted of two adults and three children, one above and another below six years It had a fair number of copper and brass utensils. The family house was well furnished, being equipped with six chairs, two tables and five cots etc. Six mattresses, eight chaddars and some blankets formed the bedding of the family. It had a radio set but no valuable ornaments. Annually it saved Rs. 300 after spending Rs. 120 on all food items, Rs. 15 on fuel and Rs. 45 on other items like entertainment, education, cosmetics per month.

Skilled and highly skilled workers are included in this section. Skilled workers are represented by artisans like hand-loom weavers, brass and copper-smiths, carpenters, sawyers, masons, workers in leather industry, barbers, cooks and tonga-drivers. Highly skilled workers are those who represent technical men like workers in textile mills and engineering factories. Fifteen families were surveyed in the sample. The incomes of these families widely varied from Rs. 75 to 210 per month. Though the flow of their income was irregular, they were better off than unskilled workers. They were engaged in their occupations throughout the year except in the monsoon. In the brisk seasons they earned double of what they earned ordinarily. The sample revealed that no artisan family was found in debt.

The members of these families except those of highly skilled workers worked in their houses for about eight months in a year. In the rainy season they sought employment outside their houses. The size of the family of this class presented a pattern quite different from that of the class of unskilled labour. In addition to husband, wife and some children, these families had three adult males like mother and father and such nearest relatives. Most of the families had a house to live in. Many persons in these families were literate. Graduates and persons who had studied till secondary school certificate examination were also found in these families.

In the sample there was a leather workers' family with an income of Rs. 75 per month. It consisted of five adults and two children. The family had a house. Its monthly expenditure on food grains was about Rs. 30. It spent Rs. 8 on milk and ghee, Rs. 4 on edible oil, Rs. 4 on sugar and gur, Rs. 1-8-0 on tea and tobacco, Rs. 2 on vegetables and Rs. 10 on fuel. There was expenditure on entertainment and cosmetics and the same on clothing was Rs. 130 per year. The family had a few copper and brass utensils and a few earthen pots. It had no furniture. Bedding consisted of one mattress and five pillows and a few cotton blankets. It had no valuable ornaments.

The second family surveyed in the sample was of a potter It consisted of four adults and two children of about six years. The family had a house but no agricultural land. Its income was Rs. 115 per month. It spent Rs. 125 on clothing, Rs. 25 on medical care, Rs. 20 on house repairing per annum. The monthly expenditure was Rs. 50 on food, Rs. 7 on milk and ghee, Rs. 3 on edible oil, Rs. 2 on sugar and gur, Rs. 4 on vegetables, Re. 1 on tea and tobacco, Rs. 9 on fuel and Rs. 4 on cosmetics and entertainment. The family had a few utensils of brass and copper. It had three matresses, six chaddars and blankets. It had valuable ornaments worth Rs. 300.

The third family was of a weaver, which consisted of seven adults and one child. It had three houses and no agricultural land. Its income was Rs. 210 per month. Three persons

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in the family were literate. It spent annually Rs. 200 on clothing, Rs. 50 on medical care, and Rs. 30 on house repairing. The monthly expenditure was Rs. 40 on food grains, Rs. 7 on milk and milk products, Rs. 6 on sugar and gur, Rs. 6 on edible oils, Rs. 5 on vegetables and Re. 1 on tea and coffee. Rs. 15 on fuel, Rs. 8 on education and Re. 1 on entertainment. The family had many utensils of brass and copper and four pieces of furniture like a chair, a table and a cupboard. It had valuable ornaments worth Rs. 3,000.

UNSKILLED LABOUR.

In urban areas this class represents the lowest rung of occupational hierarchy. It includes those persons who do not possess skill but only physical energy to work. They depend upon their manual labour or daily *majuri* for their maintenance. Urban centres offer them opportunities for employment which change from year to year and from season to season.

Ten families were surveyed in the sample. Most of the members of these families seek employment outside their homes. Their incomes vary according to the size of the family. It appeared to be between Rs. 30 and Rs. 70 per month, the average being about Rs. 40 per family.

These families except two had no property like agricultural and. Two had an acre of land each. Five had their own houses, which were mostly huts built with earth and cow-dung and were vulnerable to heavy rains. The living conditions of these families were unhygienic. The average size of the family consisted of two adults and three children. Nearly 70 per cent. of the persons were illiterate. Those who were literate had taken primary education.

It is very difficult to construct the budget of such families, as their income fluctuated from season to season. In some occupations, male earners were served with food in addition to their daily wage. Female members in addition to their household work were engaged in some gainful employment. So the expenditure on food which claimed the largest slice of their income, did not reveal the correct picture. Similarly, the item of clothing did not give a correct idea, as members of these families often went half naked or were given clothing by the persons with whom they served.

The household equipment consisted of the barest minimum. The utensils they possessed were almost all earthen. Bedding in the big family consisted of some gunny bags, rough cotton blankets and a few *godhadis*. These families had no ornaments. House rent formed one of the most important items of their expenditure. Expenditure on medical care, education and recreation scarcely found place in their budgets. Expenditure on items like milk and ghee was also negligible. Thus these families were deprived of even the bare necessities of life.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of Life.
UNSKILLED LABOUR.
Concluding Remarks.

The urban areas thus present a picture of all socially significant sections of the population from the unskilled labourers who form the lowest rung of society to the well-to-do and the rich. One cannot come to any correct conclusion on the basis of the data collected for the purpose, as it is very scanty; but a general trend in the pattern of expenditure can be indicated. Wherever there has been the question of spending a little more to gain some comforts suited for a particular standard or of foregoing some comforts to save a little more, the trend to-day, is to prefer the former to the latter. With the provision of increasing facilities in a Welfare State for such essentials of life as education, sanitation, medical help and housing, even people of low-income groups are expected to have a slightly better standard of living.

CHAPTER 12—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.
CONDITIONING FACTORS.

THE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IN A GIVEN REGION depends on the availability of resources, on their effective use and on the level of social awakening of the people. In the wake of the development of modern means of transport and communications distance is fast diminishing; markets are fast widening and inter-regional dependence and specialization in production is on the increase. Under these circumstances while estimating economic prospects of a district, it is necessary to take into account the factors that are likely to raise the general level of economic activity in the country.

Our country has accepted the principle of balanced economic growth through implementation of a series of developmental plans, the first of which has already been completed and the second is being implemented. To the extent that these plans are successful, economic prospects of a district will be favourably affected. No attempt is made, in this chapter, to assess in detail the impact of the plans, though their general influence is always borne in mind.

Economic prospects for the district of Kolhapur, as visualised in the preceding chapters of this volume, appear to be bright. The expanding sugar industry, the multi-purpose hydro-electric project of Radhanagari, the manufacture for the first time, of aluminium that the Koyna hydro-electric project envisages are the principal factors calculated to shape the economic prospects. The district has been very fortunate to get, almost simultaneously, increased irrigation facilities and increased supply of electric power. Irrigation facilities not only bring new land under plough, but enhance the productivity of land under cultivation, and also make rotation of crops possible. Supply of power, as is well known, is an essential pre-requisite for industrial development. Even then, it is not possible to anticipate with any definiteness the economic prospects of this district; for a variety of factors has to be taken into consideration the behaviour of which cannot be forecast with accuracy. These factors, among others, are enterprise, availability of finance and expert knowledge.

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.
AGRARIAN REFORMS.

The district is primarily agricultural. In the absence of any scope for bringing new land under cultivation, the available land must be cultivated intensively. The Agricultural Department has launched an intensive drive to increase the yield per acre. It is extending to the cultivator better and modern methods of agricultural operations, and impressing on his mind the importance of manures and seeds of improved strains. Composting city and village refuge will add to the cultivators manure supply and at the same time establish a new bond of co-operation between the rural and the urban sectors. Inculcation of the spirit of co-operation will certainly place the isolated and poor cultivators on a better economic footing. It is to the success of these measures that the economic prospects of the district are related.

The multi-purpose project at Radhanagiri, is a major project which will considerably enhance the economic prospects of the district. The river Bhogawati which is now bunded, used to run practically dry in the summer. Villages on its banks could not depend on it for an assured water supply. As the region is hilly, flow irrigation is very expensive. The water in the river has to be lifted for irrigation purposes. The reservoir at Radhanagari is to be used for irrigation as well as for generation of electricity needed to lift water for irrigation. The project, when completed, will benefit the district* in the following way :—

(1) An assured water supply to irrigate 8,000 acres of sugarcane and 10,000 acres of rabi crops from Radhanagari up to Shirol.

(2) Rabi crops 10,000 acres upto Kolhapur.

(3) Power to lift water for irrigation from Radhanagari to Shirol and also to minor industries and lighting in Kolhapur, Ichalkaranji, Jaisingpur, etc.

The power generated is 4,800 K.W. in 1956.

(4) Sufficient water supply to a part of the Kolhapur city to be fed through the water works situated on the bank of the Bhogavati river.

NEW INDUSTRIES.
Development of Sugar industry.

The sugar industry is likely to expand and acquire an important place in the economy of the district. Since irrigation facilities have become available the acreage under sugarcane has continuously been increasing. The total number of acres under sugarcane in this district has shot up to 48,000 in 1955-56 from 32,000 in 1945-46. The nature of the soil and climatic conditions are quite suitable to sugarcane cultivation and so the present percentage of recovery (13·5) of sugar from sugarcane grown in the district though high enough, can still be raised by appropriate measures.

*Taken from "First Five-Year Plan, Bombay State, Kolhapur District."

NEW INDUSTRIES. Development of Sugar industry.

An attempt to run sugar factories on co-operative basis has caught the imagination of well-to-do cultivators in Maharashtra. In Kolhapur district, four such factories are under construction. If this attempt succeeds, it will lead to the expansion of the sugar industry. Co-operative management has many advantages. As the cultivators are also the owners of sugar factories there can be an assured supply of raw material. The difficulty of providing capital is minimised to the extent that the resources of many are pooled together.

At present most of the sugarcane grown in this district is utilised for the production of gur. But to the extent to which the sugar industry develops, production of gur might be curtailed unless sugarcane produce should be found to be in excess of what the sugar factories could crush.

Manufacture of organic solvents from molasses.

Manufacture of organic solvents from sugarcane molasses will be a new subsidiary industry. Molasses, a waste material in a sugar factory, can be converted into alcohol and organic solvents which are important industrial raw materials. Such organic solvents are: Ethnol, Butanol, Aceton, and other higher alcohols.

On account of the continuously increasing demand for plastics, alcohol manufactured from molasses is likely to be converted, at a later stage of production, into various plastics viz., Polyethylene, Polystrene, Polyvinyl, Chloride, Polyvinyl Acetate; into solvents such as Acetone Acetic acid and into Synthetic Rubber.

Manufacture of Citric Acid.

Sugarcane molasses are the main raw material for the production of citric acid, used mainly in the production of pharmaceutical grade citrates, as well as in soft drinks and food along with tartaric acid. Though correct figures regarding the existing demand are not available it is estimated that about 1,000 to 1,500 tons of acid can easily be consumed in the production of various products referred to above. As the size of a plant is adjustable to the available supply of molasses, subject to the minimum of five tons per day, citric acid is likely to be produced in the district. All these possibilities were absent in the past because manufacture of alcohol was prohibited.

Oil Industry.

The total area under oil seeds is about 1,14,000 acres. The average yield per acre is about 1,000 to 1,200 lbs. Of the total production of 50,000 tons of oil seeds, only 12,500 tons are crushed in oil mills and an equal quantity in the country crushers called *ghanies*; the remaining 25,000 tons are exported. It is

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.

NEW INDUSTRIES. Oil Industry.

quite possible that as the sugar industry develops, it may create conditions favourable to the expansion of the oil industry. The district is dependent on others for the supply of oil-cakes. This dependence will progressively increase as more and more acreage passes under sugarcane, to which oil-cake is an excellent manure. Thus the waste material of the oil industry has a ready and expanding market within the district.

Manufacture of Aluminium.

Manufacture of aluminium, which is an important non-ferrous metal required by various industries may be started, in the near future, in this district. Extensive bauxite deposits are known to be lying in the bowels of the earth in Kolhapur and Belgaum districts. There is an enormous demand in the country for aluminium in all forms. The Planning Commission has estimated the current annual demand for aluminium, in all forms, at about 20,000 tons as against the present production capacity of 7,500 tons. The necessary electric power for treating bauxite and other metallurgical operations, will be supplied in a couple of years by the Koyna Hydel Project, in addition to that supplied by the Radhanagari Project. The cost of generating electricity per unit is low in a Hydel Project and this will be an advantage to the factories located in the district over those located elsewhere. Petrolium coke used in manufacturing aluminium can be secured from the oil refineries at Bombay.

Development of Small-scale Industries.

Government is keen on developing small-scale industries and in pursuance of this policy, Kolhapur city is one of the nine centres selected by the State Bank of India for its "Pilot Project for the co-ordinated provision of credit to small-scale industries". In addition to this, facilities for training are also provided. People of the district have an aptitude for engineering The demand for oil engines and pumping sets is likely to go up on account of increased irrigation facilities. This will open new opportunities for more engineering workshops repairing oil engines and also for the production of pumping sets and oil-engines, for which there exists no threat of external competition on account of the import policy pursued by the Government of India. Again as more and more electricity will be used in days to come, there is enough scope to manufacture small electric motors, other instruments and various spare parts.

To sum up, the district of Kolhapur, fortunate enough to get increased irrigation facilities and supply of electric energy, has a hopeful outlook. Its economic prospects tend to be bright in view of the expected developments in agriculture, industry and finance.

DISTRICT UNDER THE PLANS.

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.
INTRODUCTORY.

Introductory.—This section presents in brief an account of the development programme in the district under the Five Year Plans. The bulk of the schemes included in the State plans are of a general nature and benefit all the districts of the State far and near. Certain schemes, however, belong so predominantly to the district that the benefits accruing from them necessarily pertain to the economy of the district. All such schemes are outlined below:—

Situation.—With a fairly compact area of 2,794·4* sq. miles, this district is bounded by Ratnagiri district on the west, the Varana river (N. Satara) on the north, the South Satara and Belgaum districts on the east and Belgaum and Ratnagiri on the south. Traverse of Sahyadris in the west region, raises the height of this part at places up to 3,000′ above sea level. The height of eastern part which is rather flat varies between 1,900 and 2,000 feet above sea level. The population of the district (1951) is 12,27,547, of which 2,27,457 is urban. The principal industries of the district are sugar, tanning, film, hand-loom and oil extracting.

AGRICULTURE AND ALLIED PROBLEMS.

Agricultural and Allied Problems.—The development schemes under the Five Year-Plans include schemes of compost making, seed improvement, vegetable development, mechanical cultivation, lift irrigation works, etc.

(a) *Compost making*.—In pursuance of Grow More Food campaign and to supplement the production of bulky manures in Bombay State, scheme for preparation of compost manure from organic wastes was undertaken. In the Second Plan the same programme is to be continued in additional fields.

(b) *Seed Improvement*.—For the improvement of the yield of crops, schemes for multiplication and distribution of improved strains of important food crops through the registered seed cultivators was undertaken in the district in 1951-52. The cultivators sell their produce to the Agricultural Department at a premium. During the Second Plan period special agricultural land is kept reserve (to be utilised) for meeting the requirements of seed in all the talukas of the district.

(c) *Agricultural School*.—The scheme aims at imparting agricultural education, which other than research training, includes subjects like animal husbandry, dairying, horticulture, co-operation and other complementary agricultural occupation.

(d) *Boring Scheme*.—In order to augment the supply of water by drilling bores in the wells, this scheme was undertaken by and carried through the District Local Board. In the First Plan period nearly ten wells were sunk every year. Repairs to the old wells also is being carried out on a wide scale.

*Land Records.

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.

AGRICULTURE AND ALLIED PROBLEMS.

(e) *Land Improvement Scheme.*—In order to realise a balanced development of agriculture three fold improvement schemes viz., to minimise the denudation of land, to mechanise the methods of operation and to turn a fallow land into a cultivable land, is undertaken. In Kolhapur district during First Plan period construction of Bundharas and digging trenches to restrict denudation, was carried in 74,675 acres of land. A unit consisting of six tractors and a bulldozer has been attached to the district. Survey of more than 2/3rd of the fallow land was completed under the First Plan period, and that of the rest will be completed during the Second Plan.

(f) *Co-operative Lift Irrigation.*—Establishment of five lift irrigation and four dam construction societies in 1954 has facilitated the construction work of a jack-well and inlet pipe-line. Works under Minor Irrigation scheme is carried on in this district on a considerable scale.

POWER PROJECTS.

Power Projects.—Two schemes viz., Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Project and Emergency Irrigation and City Concession Scheme completed at the end of the first Plan, provide an assured water supply for irrigation of sugarcane and rubby crops, and generate power which is utilised in lifting water for irrigation and running minor industries. A construction of a dam on Varna river for water supply has been concieved in the Second Plan. This will irrigate 7,500 acres of land.

INDUSTRIES AND MINING.

Industries and Mining.—In order to foster the development of Small-scale and Cottage Industries, Government has organised institutions, like Industrial Co-operatives and Bombay Industrial Board which furnish rural artisan with the technical education advice and guidance on different aspects on the one hand and give finance for the installation of a small modern machine and improved equipment on the other. At the end of the First Plan 97 Industrial Co-operative Societies were formed, prominent among them being hand-loom, bee-keeping, oil extraction and tanning. 179 new co-operative societies will be started during the Second Plan and a grant-in-aid to the tune of Rs. 6·59 lakhs will be given to them. Besides Rs. 650 lakhs will be distributed under the rules of State aid to Industries. Bombay Industries Board proposes to start the following Industries during Second Plan:—

(1) Power-loom,

(2) Tanning.

(3) Umbrella Making.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Transport and Communications.—The need for good roads in Kolhapur district is of utmost importance due to three reasons, viz., (a) Roads emanating from Kolhapur connect Konkan with ghats, (b) There is no railway in Konkan region and (c) During rainy-season coastal traffic practically disappears

and when Bangalore-Poona road is the only means of communication between these two regions. The development programmes completed under the First Plan are:—

(i) Modernisation of (Bangalore-Poona Road), National Highways by black-topping the road surface with premia chips.

(ii) Improvement of the State Highways.

(iii) Construction of Bridges on five rivers was undertaken in the First Plan and will be completed in the Second Plan. New Roads of a length of 130 miles are to be constructed in the Second Plan.

(iv) Construction of approach roads in order to join small villages to the main roads, is also to be undertaken.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT.

Rural Development.—A co-ordinated scheme of rural development contemplates; better housing, labour and social welfare, local development schemes and development of local bodies like Village Panchayats. This programme has been divided under different heads and separate institutions have been created to look after them. District Development Boards holds a large fund to be distributed for the uplift of agriculture, public health and sanitation, education, cottage industries, etc.

Health.

Health.—Schemes are also devised to provide people with increased facilities for medical aid, prevention of communicable diseases, and measures are adopted to improve sanitary and hygenic condition, water supply. Facilities in training of medical personnel are also provided for.

Sugarcane cultivation.

Sugarcane cultivation.—An ample supply of canal water provides a good scope for the cultivation of sugarcane in this district. In Second Plan period, one more factory will be added to two co-operative sugar factories established during 1951-55.

Fishery.

Fishery.—With a view to provide people and Grampanchayats with an additional source of income and to augment the supply of fish in the Kolhapur district, scheme has been undertaken since 1951. The fry of local type called "*Tambeer*" were caught and fattened scientifically in twelve tanks which resulted in 1,95,070 lbs. of additional fish in the First Plan. Remoteness from the sea, however restricts the growth of this business beyond certain limits. The Second Plan contemplates:—

(*a*) Fattening of fry of select varieties of fish in fresh water tanks.

(*b*) Stimulate the growth of rapidly growing varieties of carp-fry.

(*c*) Provision of preservation of fish during the period extending their catch to marketing.

CHAPTER 12. Economic Prospects. RURAL DEVELOPMENT.

Co-operation, Warehousing and Marketing.—Co-operative schemes under the Plans relate mostly to the rural development which include co-operative creameries and milk supply unions, Backward class housing societies, co-operative farming societies etc. Under the Second Plan number of co-operative societies will be established to help farming, fishery, sugarcane producing, etc. on co-operative basis.

Warehousing.

Warehousing.—This scheme under the Second Plan will enable farmers to store their produce, and sell it only when it is profitable to do so. Regulated markets and co-operative marketing societies will also help removing the mal-practices and underhand dealings.

Community Development.

Community Development.—A Community Development project was undertaken in 1952 in three blocks, viz., Shirol, Bhudargad and Karvir-Panhala. Other schemes such as N. E. S., Sarvodaya scheme and Grampanchayat Vikas Scheme are meant to foster both cultural and material development of villages.

Welfare of Backward Class.

Welfare of Backward Class.—The programme for the socio-economic development of the backward class community includes, formation of co-operative housing societies, allotment of fallow lands for cultivation and extension of such facilities as require in the process of agriculture, etc.

PART V—PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

CHAPTER 13—ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE.

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

INTRODUCTION.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security of person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of government the demand arose for the expansion of governmental activities into what were called "nation building" departments, namely Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc.

In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms a greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularization of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation-building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the descriptions that follow in this chapter and in chapters 14-18, the departments of the State operating in Kolhapur district have been grouped into six categories, composed as follows :—

Chapter 13—Administrative Structure.—Land Revenue and General Administration* and Local Self-Government.

* This is composed of the Collector and his subordinate officers.

CHAPTER 13. Administrative Structure. INTRODUCTION.

Chapter 14—Justice and Peace.—Judiciary, Police, Jails and Juveniles and Beggars.

Chapter 15—Revenue and Finance.—Land Records, Sales Tax, Registration, Stamps, and Motor Vehicles.

Chapter 16—Developmental Departments.—Agriculture, Veterinary, Forests, Co-operation, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, Industries, Public Works, and Road Transport.

Chapter 17—Welfare Departments.—Education, Technical and Industrial Training, Medical, Public Health, Labour, Prohibition and Excise, Backward Classes, the Charity Commissioner and Community Projects and National Extension Service.

Chapter 18—Miscellaneous Departments.—Town Planning and Valuation, Publicity, and Administration of Managed Estates.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

A REARRANGEMENT OF THE BOUNDARIES of various talukas and mahals was effected in 1949 and 1950 and Chandgad taluka from the Belgaum district was included in this district with effect from 1st October, 1956. The district now covers an area of 3184·44 square miles and has according to the census of 1951, a population of 13,08,060. It is divided into two prants, comprising 9 talukas and 3 mahals as shown below:—

		Area in Square miles.	Population. (1951 Census)
(1) *Kolhapur or Northern Sub-Division*—			
(*i*) Karvir Taluka	...	262·4	2,66,299
(*ii*) Hatkanangale	...	235·3	1,69,700
(*iii*) Shirol Taluka	...	203·8	1,21,192
(*iv*) Shahuwadi Taluka	...	407·5	86,765
(*v*) Panhala Mahal	..	218·3	96,379
(*vi*) Bavada Mahal	...	260·6	52,922
(2) *Gadhinglaj of Southern Division*—			
(*i*) Kagal Taluka	...	212·0	1,10,734
(*ii*) Gadhinglaj Taluka	..	191·6	1,11,397
(*iii*) Chandgad Taluka	..	394·0	80,513
(*iv*) Bhudargad Taluka	..	253·1	65,929
(*v*) Radhanagari Taluka	...	344·5	87,205
(*vi*) Ajra Mahal	..	205·3	59,025
Total	...	3,188·4	13,08,060

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Collector.

The Collector is the pivot on which the district administration turns. Not only is he at the head of the Revenue Department in the district, but, in so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to superintend the working of the offices of other departments.

(1) *Revenue*.—The Collector is most intimately connected with the operation of the Bombay Land Revenue Code (V of 1879). He is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water) wherever situated, and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue, except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (*vide* section 45, Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds:—

(*i*) agricultural assessment,

(*ii*) non-agricultural assessment; and

(*iii*) miscellaneous (e.g., rates for the use of water in respect of which no rate is leviable under the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879).

The Collector's duties are in respect of:—

(*a*) fixation,

(*b*) collection, and

(*c*) accounting of all such land revenue.

The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. This assessment is revised every thirty years taluka by taluka. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records Department before a revision is made, and the Collector is expected to review the settlement reports with great care. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of thirty years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons as a matter of grace, and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, section 48 of the Code provides for alteration of the agricultural assessment when agriculturally assessed land is used for a non-agricultural purpose. In the same way, unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Land Revenue Code. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion, and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for.

CHAPTER 13.
Administrative Structure.
LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.
Collector.

Statistics of Land Revenue Collections.—The statistics of land revenue collections in Kolhapur district for the year 1956-57 are as under:—

NUMBER OF VILLAGES:		
Khalsa . ..	1,061	
Inam	37	
		Rs. nP.
GROSS FIXED REVENUE, INCLUDING NON-AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT AND ALL OTHER DUES ...		29,54,593·17
Deduct—	Rs. nP.	
Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forests .. .	3,473·89	
Net alienations of total inams .	2,50,964·63	
Assessment of cultivable land:		
Unoccupied	3,50,618·19	
Free or specially reduced.	5,271·21	
Remaining fixed revenue for collection—		
Agricultural:		
Government occupied land including specially reduced.	21,78,626·92	
Alienated lands ..	1,27,793·61	
Building and other non-agricultural assessment .	37.844·72	
FLUCTUATING MISCELLANEOUS REVENUE .		8,14,888·86
LOCAL FUND .		4,83,889·44
Demand		35,89,423·56
Remissions		3,89,546·7
Suspensions . ..		2,05,860·79
Collections		33,36,919·72
Unauthorised balance ..		99,793·57

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts, such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1889), the Indian Court-fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Tolls on Roads and Bridges Act (III of 1875), the Bombay Entertainments Duty Act (I of 1923), and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue, and the Collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues when necessary.

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with him, and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the purpose of that administration, except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts and recover the assessment fees from shops permitted to sell liquor and drugs. The Collector of Kolhapur is the Chairman of the Prohibition Committee of the district. In fact he is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise arranges to have the policy of the department carried out.

The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948), rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act.

(2) *Inams.*—As a legacy of former Governments, alienations of land revenue have taken place in regard to large areas of land in the district. There are also cash allowances settled under various Acts. It is the duty of the Collector to see that the conditions under which these are continuable are observed and they are continued only to persons entitled to hold them. Recently, however, the State Government have inaugurated a policy of abolishing these alienations, and within a few years almost all lands in the district are expected to be assessed to full land revenue. With effect from 1st May, 1951, all Kulkarni Watans along with the right of service were abolished by the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act (LX of 1950). By the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act (XLII of 1953), which came into effect on 20th June 1953, all personal *inams* are extinguished in the case of personal *inams* consisting of exemption from the payment of land revenue only, either wholly or in part, if the amount of such exemption is or exceeds Rs. 5,000, with effect from the 1st day of August 1953, and in all other cases, with effect from the 1st day of August 1955.

(3) *Public Utility.*—The Agriculturist's Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883), regulated the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government and, in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as can be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the scarcity. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances made are recovered at the proper time.

The Collector of Kolhapur is the Court of Wards for the estates taken over under the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905).

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Collector.

(4) *Accounts*.—The Collector is in charge of the treasury and is personally responsible to Government for its general administration, the due accounting of all moneys received and disbursed, the correctness of the treasury returns and the safe custody of the valuables which it contains. In matters of accounts and audit, the Collector (with the Treasury Officer under him) is responsible to the Accountant General, whose instructions he has to obey. He does not, however, take part in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work his delegate and representative is the Treasury Officer.

(5) *Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters*.—Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeals from the Prant Officers under the Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, may be mentioned:—

(*i*) The revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906), in respect of Mamlatdars' orders under the Act. (This power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector).

(*ii*) Appellate powers under section 53 of the Bombay Irrigation Act, in regard to fixation of betterment charges on lands under the irrigable command of a canal.

(*iii*) The work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of civil courts' decrees.

(*iv*) Proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

(6) *Local Self-Government*.—In all cases in which the power of passing orders in matters affecting local bodies rests with the Director of Local Authorities or Government, either the proposals are made by the Collector or they are received by the Director of Local Authorities with the Collector's remarks. There are, however, many matters in which the Collector can pass final orders. The control sections of the various Acts governing local bodies give authority to the Collector as the chief representative of Government to supervise the action of local bodies and to give advice.

(7) *Officers of Other Departments*.—The officers of other departments stationed at the district head-quarters can be divided into two groups :—

(A) (*i*) the District and Sessions judge ;
(*ii*) the District Superintendent of Police ;
(*iii*) the Divisional Forest Officer :
(*iv*) the Executive Engineer ; and
(*v*) the Civil Surgeon.

(B) (*i*) the Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise ;
(*ii*) the Administrative Officer, District Local Board ;
(*iii*) the District Agricultural Officer ; and
(*iv*) the Inspector of Sanitation and Vaccination.

(A) (*i*) The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all judicial magistrates in the district. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has separated the magistracy into "judicial magistrates", who are subordinates of the Sessions Judge, and "executive magistrate", who are subordinate of the District Magistrate. Before the enactment of this legislation, the Sessions Judge used to exercise appellate powers over the decisions, in criminal cases, of the District Magistrate and other First Class Magistrates, but the new legislation has withdrawn from the executive magistrates practically all powers of trial of criminal cases, and only in certain cases the Sessions Judge has to hear appeals from the decisions of executive magistrates.

(*ii*) The District Superintendent of Police and the Police force of the district are under the control of the District Magistrate.

(*iii*) The Divisional Forest Officer is regarded as the Collector's assistant in regard to forest administration.

(*iv*) The Executive Engineer stands a little apart. Since his work is technical, he is not directly subordinate to the Collector, though in a sense he plays a part subsidiary to the general administration of the district, of which the Collector is the head, and he is expected to help the Collector whenever required to do so. The Collector can ask him to investigate the utility of minor irrigation works likely to be agriculturally useful in the district. According to section 11 of the Bombay Famine Relief Code, the Executive Engineer arranges, in consultation with the Collector, for the inclusion, in the programme of expansion of public works, of the plans for special and current repairs to roads and other useful works suitable as scarcity works. The programme of famine relief works is also prepared quinquennially by the Executive Engineer in consultation with the Collector. When the time for actual opening of any work comes, the Collector can requisition the services of the Executive Engineer for making immediate arrangements for procuring the necessary establishment, tools, plant, building materials, etc (Famine Relief Code. Section 81).

(*v*) The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but must place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

(B) The Collector is the subordinate of the Director of Prohibition and Excise in all matters pertaining to the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). The Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise is his subordinate, except in technical matters.

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Collector.

The other officers in this group are also of subordinate status, their services in their particular sphere can be requisitioned by the Collector, either directly in case of necessity, if the matter is urgent or through their official superiors.

The following are some of the officers of the district who have more or less intimate contact with the Collector, in matters relating to their department and have to carry out his general instructions .—

(*i*) the District Industrial Officer ;

(*ii*) the Backward Class Welfare Officer ;

(*iii*) the Medical Officers at the various taluka centres ;

(*iv*) the District Health Officer ;

(*v*) the Compost Development Officer (through the Rural Development Board) ;

(*vi*) the Divisional Veterinary Officer ;

(*vii*) the District Inspector of Land Records ;

(*viii*) the District Officer, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries ;

(*ix*) the District Co-operative Officer ; and

(*x*) the Marketing Inspector.

The Regional Transport Officer is other officer whose work in the district has to be conducted in consultation with the Collector.

(8) *As District Magistrate.*—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other executive magistrates in the district. As District Magistrate, besides the ordinary powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate, he has the following powers among others: —

(*i*) Power to hear appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or good behaviour (section 406, Criminal Procedure Code).

(*ii*) Power to call for records from any subordinate executive magistrate (section 436) ;

(*iii*) Power to issue commission for examination of witnesses (section 503 and 506) ;

(*iv*) Power to hear appeals from or revise orders passed by subordinate executive magistrates under section 514—procedure on forfeiture of bond (section 515). When authorised by the State Government, the District Magistrate may invest any magistrate subordinate to him with :—

(*i*) power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (section 143) ;

(*ii*) power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144) ; and

(*iii*) power to hold inquests (section 174).

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The District Magistrate Kolhapur, is Chairman of the Board of Visitors of the Kolhapur Central Prison. The executive management of the sub-jails in the district is subject to his orders.

Besides having control over the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951), and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations and outposts, in order that he may gain an insight into the state of crime within their limits and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884), and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts, to inspect factories and magazines. and to perform various other supervisory functions.

(9) *As District Registrar.*—As District Registrar the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

(10) *Sanitation and Public Health.*—The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are :—

(*a*) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases ;

(*b*) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the sanitary administration of municipalities and other sanitary authorities ; and

(*c*) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary conditions of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer.

(11) *District Development Board.*—The Collector is *ex-officio* Chairman of the District Development Board. The Board is constituted of district or divisional officers of the various departments concerned with rural development, members of the State Legislature who are residents of the district, the President of the District Local Board, two non-official members of the State District Development Board who are residents of the district, representatives of co-operative agencies in the district,

such as the District Central Co-operative Bank, marketing societies and agricultural societies. The functions and duties of the board are :—

(*a*) to act as a focus of all rural development activities in the district ;

(*b*) to formulate, for submission to Government through the appropriate channels, schemes for the improvement of rural areas and for increasing the production of agricultural commodities, mainly of food crops ;

(*c*) to execute such schemes and administer such funds as may be relegated to them ;

(*d*) to supervise and guide the work of taluka development boards and village food production committees ;

(*e*) to select suitable agencies for the distribution of materials like groundnut cake, mixed manure, iron and steel, cement, diesel oil for agricultural purposes, etc., and to make provision for supervising the distribution work ; and

(*f*) to assist and advise the officers concerned for the carrying out of rural development and for increasing food production.

(12) *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.*—The Collector is also President of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board. The Vice-President of this board is a military officer nominated by the Recruiting Officer, Poona, and the members of the board are :—

(*i*) the District Superintendent of Police ;

(*ii*) the Regional Director of Resettlement and Employment, Bombay (or his nominee) ;

(*iii*) a representative of the Indian Navy ;

(*iv*) the President, District Local Board ;

(*v*) non-officials nominated by the Collector with concurrence of the State Board ;

(*vi*) the Prant Officers of the district ;

(*vii*) the Administrator, Services Post-War Reconstruction Fund and other Allied Funds ; and

(*viii*) the members of the State Board resident in the district. An ex-Junior Commissioned Officer serves as paid secretary. The duties of the board are :—

(*a*) to promote and maintain a feeling of goodwill between the civil and military classes ;

(*b*) generally to watch over the family and interest of serving soldiers, etc. ; and

(*c*) to implement in detail the work of the State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

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Consequent upon the partition of India there has been an exodus of a large number of persons from West Pakistan owing to unfavourable conditions there. A special colony to rehabilitate these persons has been opened near the district head-quarters of Kolhapur town called Gandhi Nagar Colony. The Collector of Kolhapur has, therefore, his share of the work of rehabilitation and resettlement of these persons. He has to deal with grant of loans, maintenance allowances, etc., to these persons and look after the administration of the Colony.

Collector's Office.

The Collector's Office.—The Collector's Office at Kolhapur is divided into many branches, each of which is usually in charge of a person in the grade of Mamlatdar.

The Home Branch deals with all magisterial work, the administration of the Bombay Entertainments Duty Act (I of 1923), the Arms Act (XI of 1878), and political work connected with the maintenance of law and order. The English Branch deals with the District Local Board, municipalities and village panchayats, passports, political work, prohibition and excise, public works, petroleum, medical affairs, fairs, cattle pounds, telephones, stamp duty, Backward Class Board meetings, etc. The Chitnis Branch deals with matters like land revenue, land grants, *watans*, cash allowances, *tagai*, establishment, encroachments, dues of co-operative societies, tenancy, execution of decrees of civil courts (*darkhāst*), audit of village accounts (*jamābandi* audit), and inspection of talukas and public offices. The District Registration Office is one of the branches and is in charge of the Headquarter Sub-Registrar The Treasury Branch is in charge of the Treasury Officer. There are separate branches dealing with each one of the following :—

(*i*) the Court of Wards;

(*ii*) the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board; and

(*iii*) the District Development Board.

There are branches dealing with Elections, Refugees and Evacuees, but these are purely temporary.

Prant Officers.

Prant Officers.—Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (Indian Administrative Service Officers) or District Deputy Collectors. The two Prants in the District have each a separate Prant Officer in charge. The Prant Officer in charge of Kolhapur or Northern Division has his head-quarters at Kolhapur.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Mamlatdar and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Land Revenue Code and by any other law in force or by executive orders, in regard to the talukas and mahals in his charge, except such powers as

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the Collector may specially reserve to himself. His principal functions in regard to his sub-division are :—

(I) *Revenue*.—(1) Inspection and supervision of the work of Mamlatdars, Circle Officers, Circle Inspectors and village Officers, including the inspection of taluka *kacheries*.

(2) Appointments, transfer, etc., of stipendiary village officers and the appointment etc., of hereditary village officers.

(3) Safeguarding Government property by constant inspection, dealing with encroachments, breaches of the conditions on which land is held on restricted tenure etc.

(4) Grant of waste land and disposal of alluvial land.

(5) Levy of non-agricultural assessment and passing orders regarding miscellaneous land revenue.

(6) Hearing of appeals against Mamlatdars' decisions in assistance cases and watching the execution of assistance decrees.

(7) Crop and boundary mark inspection and the checking of annewaris (*ānevaris*), i.e., estimates of crop yields for purposes of suspensions and remissions of revenue, and the record of rights.

(8) Supervision over the realisation of Government revenue.

(9) Successions to *watans* and other properties.

(10) Land acquisition.

(II) *Magisterial*.—The Prant Officer is the Sub-Divisional Magistrate of his charge and as such exercises the powers specified in Part IV of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. These include the ordinary powers of a Taluka Magistrate and also the power to maintain peace (section 107), power to require security for good behaviour under sections 108, 109 and 110; power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144); power to record statements and confessions during a police investigation (section 164); and power to hold inquests (section 174). The Sub-Divisional Magistrate, when empowered by the State Government, has power also to call for and forward to the District Magistrate records and proceedings of subordinate executive magistrates.

As Sub-Divisional Magistrate the Prānt Officer is required to inspect police sub-inspectors' office from much the same point of view from which the District Magistrate inspects them.

(III) *Other Duties*.—Among the other duties of the Prant Officer may be mentioned :—

(1) Keeping the Collector informed of what is going on in his sub-division not only from the revenue point of view but also in matters connected with law and order.

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(2) Bringing to the notice of the Collector slackness or laxity of the Mamlatdar, Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors, etc., in his sub-division.

(3) Forest settlement work.

(4) Grant of *tagai* loans.

Each Prānt Officer is assisted in his work by a Shirastedār and above five clerks.

Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

The Māmlatdārs (and Mahālkaris).—The Māmlatdār is the officer in executive charge of a tālukā and the Mahālkari has the executive charge of a mahal. There is a sub-treasury in every tālukā or mahāl, and there is practically no difference of kind between the functions and duties of a Māmlatdār and those of a Mahālkari. Each tālukā or mahāl has on the average two or three head clerks (or *aval karkuns*), 15 or 18 clerks, 60 talathis, two Circle Officers and two Circle Inspectors. The duties of Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris fall under various heads.*

(1) *Revenue.*—The Mamlatdar's revenue duties are to prepare the ground work for the Prant Officer and the Collector to pass their orders upon. When these orders are passed he has to execute them.

In regard to the annual demand of land revenue he has to get ready all the statements necessary for what is called the making of the *jamabandi* of the talukas. The *jamabandi* is partly an audit of the previous year's accounts and partly an inspection of the accounts of the current year. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue is settled, but there are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon that fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop annewaris (*ānevaris*), with the determination of which the Mamlatdar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and of fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stone or sand, fixed when individuals apply for them.

The brunt of the work of collection also lies on the Mamlatdar. He can issue notices under section 152, Land Revenue Code, inflict fines for delay in payment under section 148, Land Revenue Code, distrain and sell movable property, and issue notices of forfeiture of the land, though he has to take the Prant Officer's or the Collector's orders for actual forfeiture.

He has to collect, in addition to land revenue, *tagai* loans, *pot hissa* measurement fees, boundary marks, advances and irrigation revenue, the dues of other departments like Sales Tax,

* Whatever is said of the Mamlatdar in the following paragraphs applies also to the Mahalkari.

Income Tax and Forest when there is default in their payment, at the request of these departments to recover the dues as an arrear of land revenue.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions under which *inams* are held and, whenever there is any breach, to bring it to the notice of the Collector through the Prant Officer.

He has to make enquiries and get ready the material on which the Prant Officer has to pass his own orders under the Bombay Hereditary Offices Act (III of 1874). He can himself pass order as to the appointment, remuneration, period of service, suspension and fining of inferior village servants, the grant of leave of absence to them and the like.

Applications for grant of *tagai* are generally received by the Mamlatdar, who has to get enquiries made by the Circle Officer and Circle Inspector, see the sites for the improvement of which *tagai* is sought, ascertain whether the security offered is sufficient, determine what instalments for repayment would be suitable etc. He can grant *tagai* up to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 200 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and Agricultural Loans Act respectively. A Mamlatdar who has been specially empowered can grant *tagai* up to Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 500 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agricultural Loans Act respectively. In other cases he has to obtain orders from the Prant Officer or the Collector.

The Mamlatdar's duties regarding *tagai* do not end with the giving of it ; he has to see that it is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken by its means, watch the payment, and make recoveries from defaulters. The Mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the area of his charge. His powers under the Act have been delegated to the Aval Karkuns.

(2) *Quasi-Judicial.*—The quasi-judicial duties which the Mamlatdar performs include—

(*i*) inquiries and orders under the Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906) ;

(*ii*) the execution of civil court decrees ;

(*iii*) the disposal of applications from superior holders for assistance in recovering land revenue from inferior holders ; and

(*iv*) enquiry in respect of disputed cases in connection with the record of rights in each village. The last two are summary enquiries under the Land Revenue Code.

(3) *Magisterial.*—Every Mamlatdar is *ex-officio* the Taluka Magistrate of his taluka. As Taluka Magistrate, First Class, he has the following other powers under the Criminal Procedure Code :—

(*i*) Power to command unlawful assembly to disperse (section 127).

(*ii*) Power to use civil force to disperse unlawful assembly (section 128).

(*iii*) Power to require military force to be used to disperse unlawful assembly (section 130).

(*iv*) Power to apply to District Magistrate to issue commission for examination of witness (section 506).

(*v*) Power to recover penalty on forfeited bond (section 514) and to require fresh security (section 514-A).

(*vi*) Power to make order as to disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed (section 517).

(*vii*) Power to sell property of a suspected character (section 525).

If authorised by the State Government or the District Magistrate, the Taluka Magistrate may exercise the following among other powers :—

(1) Power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (section 143).

(2) Power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144).

(3) Power to hold inquests (section 174).

The Mamlatdar is also in charge of the management of the sub-jail. He has to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrate informed of all criminal activities in his charge, taking steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in his charge. In a case of serious disturbance of public peace the Mamlatdar carries great responsibility, for, as the senior executive magistrate on the spot, he must issue orders and carry on till his superiors arrive.

(4) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As Sub-Treasury Officer the Mamlatdar is in charge of the taluka treasury, which is called "sub-treasury" in relation to the District Treasury. Into this treasury all money due to Government in the taluka—land revenue, forest, public works and other receipts—are paid and from it nearly the whole of the money expended for Government in the taluka is secured. The sub-post offices in the taluka receive their cash for postal transactions from the sub-treasury and remit their receipts to it. The Sub-Treasury Officer pays departmental officers on cash orders or demand drafts issued by Treasury Officers and on cheques, except where certain departments are allowed to present bills direct at the sub-Treasury. The Sub-Treasury Officer also issues Government and bank drafts.

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When the Mamlatdar is away from his headquarters, the Treasury Head Karkun is *ex-officio* in charge of the Sub-Treasury and of the account business, and he is held personally responsible for it. During the Mamlatdar's presence he is authorised to sign receipts irrespective of the amount.

The Taluka Sub-Treasury is also the local depot for stamps general, court-fee and postal—of all denominations and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit holders. A few sub-treasuries have been specially authorized to discontinue the maintenance of a stock of postal stamps. In such cases, the sub-post office at the taluka headquarters is supplied with postal stamps from the post offices at the district headquarters.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances whenever necessary. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank for remittance of funds.

The Mamlatdar has to verify the balance in the Sub-Treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month, which for the convenience of the District Treasury is fixed on the 25th of all months, except February, when it is the 23rd, and March, when it is the 31st, the latter being the closing day of the financial year. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the Mamlatdar to the Treasury Officer at Kolhapur. The Sub-treasuries are annually inspected by either the Collector or the Prant Officer.

(5) *Other Administrative Duties.*—The Mamlatdar's main duty lies towards the Collector and the Prant Officer whom he must implicitly obey and keep constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreaks of epidemics and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as serious mal-administration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machine, due, for instance, to subordinate officers of different departments being at loggerheads.

He must help officers of all departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his taluka is concerned. In fact, he is at the service of all of them and is also the connecting link between the officers and the public whom they are all meant to serve. This is particularly so in departments which have not a local taluka officer of their own. The Mamlatdar is also responsible for the cattle census, which really comes under the purview of the Agricultural Department. The Co-operative Department expects the Mamlatdar to propagate co-operative principles in his taluka. He has to execute the awards and decrees of societies in the taluka, unless there is a special officer appointed for the purpose. He has to take

prompt action in respect of epidemics and to render to the Assistant Director of Public Health and his assistants every help in preventing outbreaks of epidemic diseases and suppressing them when they occur.

Under executive orders the Mamlatdar has to provide the Military Department with the necessary provisions and conveyances when any detachment marches through the taluka.

The Mamlatdar's position in relation to other taluka officers, e.g., the sub-inspector of police, the sub-registrar, the range forest officer, the sub-assistant surgeon and the prohibition official is not well defined. They are not subordinate to him except perhaps in a very limited sense but are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres.

Though the Mamlatdar is not expected to work directly for local self-government bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them. He is responsible for the administration of his taluka just as the Collector is responsible for the district.

He is *ex-officio* Vice-Chairman of the Taluka Development Board, which acts as the agency of the District Development Board in the taluka in all matters pertaining to agricultural and rural development, and especially in regard to the "grow more food" campaign. The other members of the board are the Agricultural Assistant stationed at the taluka, the Forest Range Officer, the Assistant District Co-operative Officer stationed at the taluka headquarters, and the Veterinary Assistant. The Collector nominates as members. with the approval of Government, three non-officials known to take active interest in the "grow more food" campaign in the taluka.

In relation to the public well-being, the Mamlatdar is the local representative of Government and performs generally the same functions as the Collector, but on a lower plane.

Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors.

Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors.—In order to assist the Mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants and to make local enquiries of every kind promptly, Circle Officer in the grade of Aval Karkuns and Circle Inspectors in the grade of Karkuns are appointed. The Circle Officer certifies entries in the record of rights, and thus relieves the Mamlatdar of a good deal of routine work. There are from 30 to 50 villages in charge of a Circle Officer or Circle Inspector. These officers form a link between the Mamlatdar and the village officers. There are generally two Circle Officers and one Circle Inspector in each taluka. Their duties relate to :—

(*i*) boundary mark inspection, inspection of crops including their annewari, the inspection of *tagai* works and detection of illegal occupation of land ;

(*ii*) preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, viz., crop statistics, cattle census, and water supply ;

(*iii*) supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the record of rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register ;

(*iv*) examination of rayats' receipt books and supervision of the revenue collection ; and

(*v*) such other miscellaneous work as the Mamlatdar may from time to time entrust them with, e.g., enquiry into any alleged encroachments.

Patil.

The *Patil* (*Village Headman*).—The Patil is the principal official in a village. The duties of the Patil fall under the following heads :—

(*i*) revenue ;

(*ii*) quasi-magisterial ;

(*iii*) administrative.

His revenue duties are:—

(*i*) in conjunction with the talathi (or village accountant) to collect the revenue due to Government from the rayats ;

(*ii*) to detect encroachments on Government land and protect trees and other property of Government ;

(*iii*) to execute the orders received from the taluka office in connection with recovery of revenue and other matters ;

(*iv*) to get the talathi to maintain properly the record of rights and village accounts and to get him to submit the periodical returns punctually ; and

(*v*) to render assistance to high officials visiting the village for inspection work and other purposes.

There are quasi-magisterial functions appertaining to the police patil. In a majority of villages the same person is both the police and the revenue patil. The police patil is responsible for the writing up of the birth and death register and for the care of unclaimed property found in the village. Several duties have been imposed on the police *patil* by the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The village police is under his charge, and he has authority to require all village servants to aid him in performing the duties entrusted to him. He has to dispose of the village establishment so as to afford the utmost possible security against robbery, breach of the peace and acts injurious to the public and to the village community. It is the police patil's duty to furnish the taluka magistrate with any returns or information called for and keep him constantly

informed as to the state of crime and the health and general condition of the community in his village. He has to afford police officers every assistance in his power when called upon by them for assistance. Further, he has to obey and execute all orders and warrants issued to him by an executive magistrate or a police officer; collect and communicate to the district police intelligence affecting the public peace; prevent within the limits of his village the commission of offences and public nuisances; and detect and bring offenders therein to justice. If a crime is committed within the limits of the village and the perpetrator of the crime escapes or is not known, he has to forward immediate information to the police officer in charge of the police station within the limits of which his village is situated, and himself proceed to investigate the matter and obtain all procurable evidence and forward it to the police officer. If any unnatural or sudden death occurs, or any corpse is found, the police patil is bound to assemble an inquest, to be composed of two or more intelligent persons belonging to the village or neighbourhood. The report of the inquest has then to be forwarded by him to the police officer. He has also to apprehend any person in the village whom he has reason to believe has committed any serious offence and send him, together with all articles to be useful in evidence, to the police officer.

As regards the patil's administrative duties, he is expected to look to the sanitation and public health of the village. He must also report promptly the outbreak of any epidemic disease to the taluka office. He is expected to render every assistance to travellers, provided payment is duly tendered.

Talathi.

The Talathi (village accountant)—The office of village accountant used generally to be held by hereditary *kulkarnis*. From 1914 onwards hereditary *kulkarnis* were allowed, subject to certain conditions, to commute the right of service attached to the *kulkarni watan*. In the Poona district, almost all the *kulkarni watans* were commuted and stipendiary talathis were substituted. With effect from 1st May 1951, all *kulkarni watans* along with the right of service were abolished by the Bombay Pargana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act (LX of 1950). If the villages are small one talathi is appointed for two or more villages, which are called his charge or saza. The talathi receives a monthly salary. His main duties are :—

(i) to maintain the village accounts relating to demand, collection and arrears of land revenue, etc., the record of rights and all other village forms prescribed by Government;

(ii) to inspect crops and boundary marks and prepare agricultural statistics and levy lists; and

(iii) to help the *patil* in the collection of land revenue, write the combined day and receipt books and other accounts and do other clerical work, including that of the police patil when the latter is illiterate.

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Village Servants.—In addition to the village officers mentioned above, there are some hereditary village servants. They are of two kinds (i) those useful to Government, and (ii) those useful to the community.

The village servants useful to Government are the *Mahars* and the *Ramosh's* (*Ramosis*). They are remunerated by *watans*, which take the form of grants of land either entirely free of assessment or subject to an annual reduced assessment (called *mamul judi*) or cash payment from the Government treasury, or both. The *Mahars* help the village patil and the talathi in the collection of revenue and do all duties in connection with village administration. They attend on the Mamlatdar and other higher officers when they visit the village. The *Ramosis* watch the movements of criminals and help the village patil in the discharge of his duties connected with the police administration.

The village servants useful to the community are known as *balutedars*. At the time of the old Maratha rule there were twelve of them called *Bara Balutedars*. Some of them have either disappeared or are in the process of disappearing from village economy, but others are still in existence with their usefulness reduced owing to modern conditions of life. Under the *baluta* system, the *balutedars* have certain rights and privileges at ceremonies, etc. Their services are remunerated by the cultivators in the shape of an annual payment in sheaves of corn and a few seers of other grain grown in the field, such as wheat, *hulga*, gram, *tur*, groundnut, etc. For special services rendered on ceremonial occasions payments are made in cash, corn or clothes. Sometimes food is given. The big cultivators who have occasion to indent on their services more frequently than the small cultivators make larger payments.

The *balutedars* whose services are still in demand in villages are the carpenter (*sutar*), the barber (*nhavi*), the idol-dresser (*gurav*), the water-carrier (*koli*), the shoe-maker (*chambhar*), the watchman (*mahar*), the blacksmith (*lohar*), the washerman (*parit*), the potter (*kumbhar*), and the rope-maker (*mang*). There has been a tendency among them to leave the villages and seek their livelihood in cities and towns. The silversmith (*potdar*) as a *balutedar* has entirely disappeared. The village astrologer (*gram joshi*) is employed at the sweet will of the cultivators. All the religious ceremonies of the cultivators and allied classes are done through the *gram joshi*, for which he is given cash payment called "*daksina*". Some religious-minded cultivators give him some quantity of corn and other presents in kind.

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The Mulla functions at the religious and other ceremonies of Muslims. He also kills the sheep and goats, for which he receives some mutton.

The barber, as a *balutedar*, does many duties not connected with his profession. At the time of a marriage ceremony, when the bridgroom goes to the temple to pray, he holds his horse and receives a turban as present. At village festivals or marriage ceremonies he sometimes acts as a cook. He also serves food and water to the guests on such ceremonies. It is his privilege to act as a messenger at marriage ceremonies and call the invitees for the function. He does massage to persons of distinction at the village. He plays on the pipe and tambour at weddings and on other festive occasions.

The water-carrier not only supplies water to the villages but also keeps watch during floods in the case of villages situated on river banks. He is also useful to the villagers to take them across the river with the help of a *sangad* (floats joined together).

There are several *Mahars* in a village. The cultivators select one of the *Mahars* for their services, whom they call "*Ghar Mahar*". He is expected to clean the open space near the houses of the cultivators and also their stables. Occasionally he furnishes them with firewood. It is the right of *Mahars* to take charge of dead animals and sell their hide to the shoe-maker.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT is conducted by various statutory bodies enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions has been in three spheres. First, in regard to their constitution, from fully or partly nominated bodies they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which had gone on widening, has, with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950), reached the widest limit possible, viz., universal adult franchise. Every person who:—

(a) is a citizen of India,

(b) has attained the age of 21 years, and

(c) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification,

is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950, reservation of seats had been provided in municipalities and in the District Local Board for women, Muhammadans, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Harijans and Backward Tribes, and in village panchayats for women, Muhammadans, Harijans and Backward

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Tribes. Before 1947, Muhammadans were also provided separate electorates in local bodies and municipalities. The enactment mentioned above abolished the reservation of seats for Muhammadans, Christians and Anglo-Indians but continued it for ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India (i.e., till 26th January 1960), for women, the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, which castes and tribes more or less represent Harijans and Backward Tribes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of the areas under their charge.

The Divisional Commissioners exercise control and authority over all institutions of Local Self-Government in the various divisions of the reorganised Bombay State since November 1, 1956. They exercise control and authority under :—

(1) The Bombay Village Sanitation Act (I of 1889).

(2) The Bombay District Vaccination Act (I of 1892).

(3) The Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901).

(4) The Bombay Town Planning Act (I of 1915).

(5) The Bombay Local Boards Act (VI of 1923).

(6) The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925).

(7) The Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930).

(8) The Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933). The Divisional Commissioner, Poona has jurisdiction over Kolhapur District.

Municipalities.

Municipalities.—The total area in the district under the administration of Municipalities and Cantonments in 1951 was nearly 84·5 square miles with a population of 2,18,099. The borough municipalities of Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji* are governed by the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925). The other municipalities in the district are all governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. Gadhinglaj, Kagal, Kurundwad, Malkapur, Murgud, Jaisingpur, Vadgaon and Panhala are the municipalities functioning under this Act. The State Government has power to declare by notification any local area to be a "Municipal district" and also to alter the limits of any existing municipal district. In every municipal district a municipality has to be constituted, consisting of elected councillors, the Commissioner having power to nominate councillors to represent constituencies which fail to elect the full number allotted to them. The State Government has power to prescribe the number and the extent of the wards to be constituted in each municipal district and the number of councillors to be elected by each ward. Till 26th January 1960, it can also reserve seats for the representation of women,

the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. The term of office of a municipality is four years, but it can be extended to an aggregate of five years by an order of the Commissioner. Under the Act, every municipality has to be presided over by a president selected from among the councillors and either appointed by Government or elected by municipality, if the State Government so directs. There shall be a Vice-President for every Municipality elected by the Councillors from among their number, but if the President is appointed by the State Government or is President Ex-Officio, the result of the election shall, if the State Government by general or special order from time to time so directs, be subject to the approval of the State Government or of the Commissioner.

The government of a municipal district vests in the municipality. The head of the municipality is the President, whose duty it is to :—

(a) preside at meetings of the municipality ;

(b) watch over the financial and executive administration and to perform such other executive functions as may be performed by the municipality ; and

(c) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

There is provision for the compulsory constitution of a managing committee in the case of all municipalities and of a pilgrim committee in the case of those municipalities which have been specially notified by the State Government. Option is also left to municipalities to appoint other executive or consultative committees.

The Act divides municipal functions into obligatory and optional. The former include all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter cover those which, despite being legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential. The following are among the obligatory duties laid on all municipalities:—

(a) lighting public streets, places and buildings ;

(b) watering public streets and places ;

(c) cleansing public streets, places and sewers ; removing noxious vegetation ; and abating all public nuisances ;

(d) extinguishing fires, and protecting life and property when fires occur ;

(e) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices ;

(f) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places ;

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(*g*) securing or removing dangerous buildings or places, and reclaiming unhealthy localities;

(*h*) acquiring and maintaining, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead;

(*i*) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary marks, markets, slaughter-houses, latrines, privies, urinals, drains, sewers, drainage works, sewerage works, baths, washing places, drinking fountains, tanks, wells, dams and the like;

(*j*) obtaining a supply or an additional supply of water, proper and sufficient for preventing danger to the health of the inhabitants from the insufficiency or unwholesomeness of the existing supply when such supply or additional supply can be obtained at a reasonable cost;

(*k*) naming streets and numbering (of premises);

(*l*) registering births and deaths;

(*m*) public vaccination;

(*n*) suitable accommodation for any calves, cows or buffaloes required within the municipal district for the supply of animal lymph;

(o) establishing and maintaining hospitals and dispensaries and providing medical relief;

(*p*) establishing and maintaining primary schools;

(*q*) printing such animal reports in the municipal administration of the district as the [(State) Government] by general or special orders requires the municipality to submit;

(*r*) paying the salary and the contingent expenditure on account of such police or guards as may be required by the municipality for the purposes of this Act or for the protection of any municipal property;

(*s*) disposing of night-soil and rubbish and, if so required by the State Government, preparing compost manure from such night-soil and rubbish;

(*t*) constructing and maintaining residential quarters for the conservancy staff of the municipality;

(*u*) providing special medical aid and accommodation for the sick in time of dangerous disease; and taking such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak of the disease or to suppress it and prevent its recurrence;

(*v*) giving relief and establishing and maintaining relief works in time of famine or scarcity to or for destitute persons; and

(*w*) paying for the maintenance and treatment of lunatics and lepers and persons affected by rabies, in case they are indigent and have been residents in the municipality for one year.

Municipalities may, at their discretion, provide out of their funds for the following among others:—

(*a*) laying out new public streets;

(*b*) constructing, establishing or maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, lunatic asylums, halls, offices, *dharamshalas*, rest-houses, homes for the disabled and destitute persons, and other public buildings;

(*c*) furthering educational objects;

(*d*) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on the offensive trades;

(*e*) establishing and maintaining a farm or factory for the disposal of sewage;

(*f*) the construction, purchase, organisation, maintenance, extension and arrangement of mechanically propelled transport facilities for the conveyance of the public;

(*g*) promoting the well-being of municipal employees and their dependants;

(*h*) providing accommodation for municipal employees and their dependants;

(*i*) construction of sanitary dwellings for the poorer classes: and

(*j*) any measure likely to promote the public safety, health, convenience or education.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items:—

(*i*) a rate on buildings and lands;

(*ii*) a tax on all or any vehicles, boats, or animals used for riding, draught or burden;

(*iii*) a toll on vehicles (other than motor vehicles or trailers) and animals used as aforesaid;

(*iv*) an octroi on animals and goods;

(*v*) a tax on dogs;

(*vi*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by municipal agency;

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction and maintenance of public latrines, and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(*viii*) a general water-rate or a special water-rate, or both:

(*ix*) a lighting tax;

(*x*) a tax on pilgrims; and

(*xi*) any other tax which the State legislature has power to impose.

Instead of (*i*), (*vii*), (*viii*) and (*ix*), a consolidated tax assessed as a rate on buildings or lands may be imposed.

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The rules regulating the levy of taxes have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, who has been given powers to subject the levy to such modifications not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions as to application of a part or whole of the proceeds of the tax to any purpose. If any tax is imposed on pilgrims resorting periodically to a shrine within the limits of the municipal district, the Commissioner may require the municipality to assign and pay to the District Local Board such portion of the tax as he deems fit, and when a portion is so assigned, an obligation is laid on the board to expend it on works conducive to health, convenience and safety of the pilgrims.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence or obnoxious to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner, for the execution of any work or the performance of any duties which the municipality is under an obligation to execute or perform but which it has failed to execute or perform.

Many of these taxes are levied by the municipalities but the rates at which they are levied do not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous grants made by Government, both recurring and non-recurring. For instance, grants are made by Government to municipalities towards maintenance of municipal dispensaries and hospitals, water-supply and drainage schemes, expenditure on epidemics, payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc. These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Since the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), control of primary education has virtually been transferred from smaller municipalities and the District Local Board to the Kolhapur District School Board, and the financial liabilities of smaller municipalities have been limited. The Primary Education Act divides municipalities into two categories, *viz.*, (1) those authorized to control all approved schools within their areas, and (2) those not so authorized. All smaller municipalities, being non-authorized, have to pay over to the District School Board only 5 per cent. of the rateable value of the properties in their areas as a contribution towards meeting the expenses on education.

Control over the municipalities is exercised by the Collector, the Commissioner, and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immovable

property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for extracts from the proceedings of a municipality or for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into its consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or information which he is able to furnish necessitating any action on its part. These powers are delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or Deputy Collectors in charge of prants.

The Commissioner has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit, pending the orders of the State Government, the execution of any of its order or resolution, if, in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Commissioner may provide for the execution of any works or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or do and the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Commissioner is also empowered to require a municipality to reduce the number of persons employed by it and also the remuneration assigned to any member of the staff. On the recommendation of a municipality he can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government may direct the Commissioner to fix a period for the performance of that duty, and if that duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The President or Vice-President of a municipality or municipal borough may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for neglect or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

The audit of all Local Fund Accounts is provided for by the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930). The Commissioner, on receipt of the report of the Examiner of Local Funds, may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made either to the District Court or to the State Government.

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The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act is applied in the Kolhapur district to the Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji municipality. This Act, enacted in 1925, confers greater powers on a Municipal Borough than those conferred on municipalities governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901.

In the case of a Borough Municipality a standing committee is appointed instead of a managing committee as in the case of district municipalities. The powers of the standing committee are wider than those of the managing committee. The appointment of chief officer is made compulsory and he has been given powers under the Act in respect of control of the subordinate staff. A chief officer has to be a graduate of a recognised university or a qualified engineer, and it is laid down by section 33 of the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, that no chief officer shall be removed from office, reduced or suspended unless by the votes of at least two-thirds of the whole number of councillors.

As regards taxation, a Borough Municipality is empowered to levy, in addition to the taxes leviable by municipalities governed by the District Municipal Act, the following specific taxes: (*a*) a drainage tax, and (*b*) a special education tax.

Certain powers exercised by the Commissioner in the case of district municipalities are, in the case of Borough Municipalities, exercised by the State Government, namely, (1) power to sanction the rules regulating the levy of taxes, (2) power to remove, on the recommendations of the municipality, any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties, and (3) power to extend the term of a municipality from four years to five years.

District Local Board.

The District Local Board.—The Local Self-Government of the area comprising the present Kolhapur District, excluding its municipal limits had already been entrusted during the regime of the erstwhile State of Kolhapur to the then Ilakha Panchayat, Karvir, which was constituted under the Kolhapur Panchayat Institution's Act, 1926, enacted more or less on the same lines as the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923. After the merger of the Kolhapur State in the province of Bombay on 1st March 1949, the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923, was applied to the Kolhapur State under the Kolhapur State (Application of Laws) Order, 1949, issued by the Government, under Notification No. 4384/46-F-III, dated 1st March 1949 in the Political and Services Department. The District Local Board, Kolhapur, consisting of 40 members nominated by Government was first constituted under the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923, under Bombay Government Order No. 6008/33(4), Health and Local Self-Government Department, dated 12th July 1949, which functioned till the newly elected Board consisting of 41 members came into existence on 11th June 1952. Four seats are reserved for women and six for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

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Consequent upon the reorganisation of States in pursuance of the States Reorganization Act, 1956 (XXXVII of 1956) passed by the Union of India, the Chandgad Taluka in the Belgaum district (transferred to the Mysore State) was included in the Kolhapur District on 1st of November 1956 and the Government of Bombay issued the Notifications No. DLB. 1056, dated the 27th July 1957 and No. DLB. 1056-C. dated the 23rd August 1957, Local Self-Government and Public Health Department, in exercise of the powers conferred by Section 131-C of the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923 (Bom. VI of 1923), appointing the 27th July 1957 as the date on and with effect from which the District Local Board of Kolhapur stood reconstituted for the District of Kolhapur as formed on the first day of November 1956, directing that the Board should consist of 44 members nominated by Government and that the said members should hold office upto and inclusive of the 15th day of December 1957. The constitution of the Board has been revised by Government under Order No. DLB. 1956-C, dated 27th August 1957, Local Self-Government and Public Health Department. prescribing 22 constituencies by which all the 54 members are to be elected out of which 4 members are to be women and 7 members are to belong to Scheduled Castes.

The area under the jurisdiction of the Board thus reconstituted is 3092·5 sq. miles containing a population (excluding municipal limits) of 10,89,961 souls i.e., nearly ten lakhs and ninety thousand in round figure.

Under the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923 the term of office of the members of the Board is four years, extensible by order of the Commissioner to a term not exceeding in the aggregate five years. If an election does not result in the return of the required number of qualified persons willing to take office, the Commissioner has to appoint the necessary number.

The President of the Board is elected by the Board from among its own members. His term of office is co-extensive with the life of the Board. His chief functions are:—

(a) to preside at meetings of the Board,

(b) to watch over the financial and executive administration of the Board;

(c) to exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the Board in matters of executive administration, and in matters concerning the accounts and records of the Board; and

(d) subject to certain limitations prescribed by Rules framed under the Act, to dispose of all questions relating to the service of the officers and servants, and their pay, privileges and allowances. Without contravening any order of the Board, he may, in cases of emergency, direct the execution or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Board.

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There is also a Vice-President of the Board who is elected like the President. He presides at meetings of the Board in the absence of the President, and exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the President as the President may delegate to him. Pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President on leave, he exercises the powers and performs the duties of the President.

Under the Act, it is compulsory on the Board to appoint a Standing Committee. The appointment of other Committees is optional, but the Board has been appointing Committees for the following subject:—

(1) Works;
(2) Law and Reference;
(3) Village Panchayats;
(4) Budget;
(5) Public Health.

The Standing Committee is to consist of not more than nine members (and in the case of a Local Board having 45 or less number of members, not more than seven members), and not less than five members, as the Board may determine. The term of office of the members of the Committees is one year or such earlier period as the Board may direct. The President of the Board is the *ex-officio* member and Chairman of the Standing Committee. The President or Vice-President, if appointed as a member of any other Committee, shall also be its *ex-officio* Chairman; otherwise the Board is to appoint the Chairman of the Committee. Tenders of works costing not more than Rs. 10,000 are sanctioned by the Standing Committee. The Standing Committee also considers subjects that generally do not come within the purview of other Committees. The other Committees advise the Board on subjects coming within their purview.

The obligatory and optional functions of the Board are set out in Section 50 of the Bombay Local Boards Act. The chief obligatory duties are:—

(*i*) the construction of roads and other means of communication and the maintenance and repair of all roads and other means of communication vested in it;

(*ii*) the construction and repair of hospitals, dispensaries, markets, *Dharamshalas* and other public buildings and the visiting, management and maintenance of these institutions;

(*iii*) the construction and repair of public tanks, wells and water-works; the supply of water from them and from other sources; and the construction and maintenance of works for the preservation of water for drinking and cooking purposes from pollution;

(*iv*) public vaccination, and sanitary works and measures necessary for the public health;

(*v*) the planting and preservation of trees by the side or in the vicinity of roads vesting in the Board; and

(*vi*) numbering of premises.

Under the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947) and the rules framed under it, which came into force from 1st April 1949, the District Local Board, Kolhapur, has no longer any administrative or financial control over primary education. The only duty of the Board is to hold an election of the members of the District School Board as prescribed in the Act, and to assign to the School Board a revenue equal to 15 pies out of the income from the cess on land revenue and water-rate.

In addition to the functions under the Bombay Local Boards Act proper, the District Local Board has to perform several other functions under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, according to which the administration of the Village Panchayats has been subjected to the general control of the District Local Board. Some of the main and important functions are:—

(*i*) to approve the annual budget estimates of Panchayats;

(*ii*) to encourage the establishment and foster the growth of Panchayats and assist them in the exercise of their powers and performance of their duties;

(*iii*) to carry out the audit of the accounts of Panchayats and to send audit reports to the Collector for orders;

(*iv*) to make by-laws generally for carrying out the purposes of the Village Panchayats Act with the previous sanction of the Divisional Commissioner.

The main financial resources of the Board, as set out in Section 75 of the Bombay Local Boards Act, are.—

(i) a cess on land revenue upto a maximum of three annas in a rupee;

(*ii*) a cess on water rate upto a maximum of three annas in a rupee;

(*iii*) all rents and profits accruing from property (including ferries) vested in the Board;

(*iv*) grants from Government.

Under Section 79 of the Act, the Board has to assign to every Municipality or Cantonment two-thirds of the cess on land revenue levied from lands within that Municipality or Cantonment. The Board now levies the cess on land revenue and water rate at the maximum of three annas in the rupee.

Until 1957-58, Government used to sanction every year a grant, under Section 118-A of the Bombay Local Boards Act

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equivalent to 15 per cent. of the land revenue including Non-agricultural assessment realised during the previous year from lands within the limits of the Board, excluding lands within Municipal Boroughs, Municipal Districts or Village Panchayats. Now Government have, by Bombay Act No. XLIV published in the *Bombay Government Gazette* on pages 234-235 of Part IV, dated 22nd May 1958 amended the above Section 118-A of the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923 and have provided that the District Local Boards shall, in future get grant equivalent to 5 per cent. of the ordinary land revenue including Non-Agricultural Assessment realised during the previous year from lands within the limits of the district excluding lands within Municipal Boroughs and Municipal Districts.

The Controlling Authorities in relation to the District Local Board are the Collector, the Commissioner, Poona Division and the State Government. They exercise in the case of the District Local Board more or less the same powers which they have in the case of municipalities.

The following were the receipts and expenditure of the Kolhapur District Local Board under the various heads in 1956-57 excluding Primary Education (which is now looked after entirely by the District School Board), and Deposits, Advances, Investments and Provident Fund:—

Receipts.

	Rs.
Land Revenue	1,99,025
Local Rates	2,86,499
Interest	4,371
Police	244
Medical	33,318
Miscellaneous	84,300
Civil Works	2,81,939
Total ..	8,89,696

Expenditure.

	Rs.
General Administration	1,18,563
Medical	1,42,214
Miscellaneous	81,837
Civil Works	5,88,603
Interest	90,000
Total ..	9,40,217

Under Deposits, Advances, Investments and Provident Fund, the receipts were Rs. 9,44,792 and expenditure Rs. 10,39,332.

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The Board has unrestricted powers of appointment of the Officers and of payment to them, but where it appoints a Chief Officer, an Engineer, or Health Officer and such appointment is approved by Government, Government has to pay to the Board two-thirds of the salary of any one of such Officer. At present the Board has appointed only a Chief Officer and an Engineer. Their scale of pay is Rs. 300—20—500—E.B.—25—600 and Rs. 250—15—400—E.B.—20—500—E.B.—25—650 respectively. From 1958-59, however, Government have amended the provisions in this respect, and in future, the District Local Boards will not get any subsidy on the pay of the Chief Officer or the Engineer as before (*vide* Bombay Act No. XLIV published in the *Bombay Government Gazette* pages 234-235 of Part IV, dated 22nd May 1958).

Roads.—In 1955-56 the Board had a total road mileage of 685·5. The maintenance of these roads is a responsibility of the Board. Of these 385·5 miles are metalled, 300 miles unmetalled and no cart tracks. The Board is required to frame a three-year programme of road improvements and to submit it to the Divisional Commissioner, Poona, for sanction. Current repair works are generally provided from the local fund. During the five years ending 31st March 1956 the Board had improved a length of 3·75 miles of roads according to this programme.

The following roads ot high categories are in charge of this District Local Board, and for the maintenance of the same an amount of Rs. 1,26,500 is placed at the disposal of the Board as a supplementary grant every year :—

(1) Devgad Kaladgi (Nipani Phonda State Highway). (No. 2 Mileage 43·5).

(2) Kolhapur Washi Parite Ghotavade road (Major District Road—23·9 miles.)

(3) Panhala Waghabil Road—4 miles.

(4) Gadhinglaj Sankeshwar Road (Sankeshwar Amboli-Ghat Road—107·9 miles).

There are no cart tracks in charge of this Board. An amount of Rs. 1,50,000 to Rs. 2,00,000 as grant-in-aid is paid to the Board for the following purposes:—

(1) Local Public Works grant for improvement to the existing roads and for the new construction of roads.

(2) Village Approach Road grant for new construction and maintenance of existing roads.

(3) State Road Fund grant for the roads on which S. T. and other passenger buses ply.

The current repairs of village approach roads are carried out from the Government grant.

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District Local Board.

Public Ferries.—A number of rivers, big and small, flow through the Kolhapur district, and generally become over-flooded during the monsoon, due to heavy rainfall, thereby causing the communication between villages on both sides of the river impossible for about four months in a year. There are in all 82 public ferries vesting in the Board and ferry boats of different designs to suit the locality are in a majority of cases provided for crossing the rivers.

Village Water Supply.—Wells are provided by the Board in the case of a majority of the villages, but some of the wells go dry in the hot season and at times when the water supply is not sufficient the Board tries to repair these wells and keep them in order. Government have decided to provide a large number of wells to various villages and are now carrying out their projects through various agencies. Under this scheme, although the excavation and construction of the new wells are financed by Government, they are to be maintained by the Board or the Village Panchayats concerned out of their funds, as properties vesting in them. Wells constructed by the Community Development Project, Kolhapur, are being taken over by the Board. Some village water supply works will be transferred to the Board or the Village Panchayats as the case may be, for maintenance after completion, the execution of which is now being carried out through the Revenue Authorities under the Local Development Works Programme. Under Village Water Supply Scheme 1/4th of the total cost is generally recovered from the villagers as popular contribution. in cash or kind or both.

Health and Sanitation.—As already stated, the Board has not appointed a Health Officer of its own. Its obligations in connection with the maintenance of public health is discharged by the Board with the help of the District Health Officer to whom it provides the staff and funds required for fighting epidemics and small-pox and for the maintenance of public health. Anti-plague and cholera vaccine and other necessary medicines, contingencies and appliances are supplied by the Board from its own funds. There are 23 permanent vaccinators who work under the District Health Officer but the cost on their account is borne by the Board. The Board treats all public and private wells and other sources of water supply with T. C. L. and potassium permanganate when epidemics are prevailing or are likely to prevail. To check the growth of guinea-worm, step wells are converted by the Board into draw wells. All sanitary arrangements in connection with fairs in the District are made by the Health Department of Government. The Board, however, looks to the provision of pure drinking water during fairs and on routes leading to pilgrim centres and assists the Health Department in other ways. The roads leading to pilgrim centres are maintained by the Board. The Board has also maintained a mobile unit of epidemic hospital of ten beds which is used when there is an outbreak of epidemics in the rural area.

The Board maintains 23 Ayurvedic Dispensaries and there are three subsidised medical practitioners under the Rural Medical Aid Scheme of Government. Four-fifths of the expenditure on this scheme is borne by Government and one-fifth by the Board.

Eight Ayurvedic Dispensaries have been converted into Primary Health Centres under the Community Development Project with the co-operation of the Health Department.

Other Amenities.—The Board's *dharamshalas* in the Village Panchayat areas have been transferred to the Panchayats as a general policy. Owing to improvement in the means of communications and quick transport, travellers are not required to halt in *Dharamshalas* and practically the purpose for which they were built in the past no longer survives. The *Dharamshalas* in most of the villages are now used for housing schools, Panchayat Offices etc. The *Dharamshalas* can be useful for the S. T. buses as pick-up centres in that part of area. The necessity of constructing a multi-purpose *Dharamshala* building is keenly felt for the safety and convenience of the public.

Village Panchayats.

Village Panchayats.—Village Panchayats form local units of administration for villages. Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933), as amended upto 31st December 1957, in every local area which has a population of not less than 500 a panchayat has to be established It is also permissible for the State, if sufficient reasons exist, to direct the establishment of a panchayat in a local area having a population of 250 and above but less than 2,000.

The maximum number of members for a panchayat is fifteen and the minimum number seven. The members are to be elected on adult franchise. Till 26th January 1960 (*i.e.*, till the expiration of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India), the State Government have been given power to reserve seats (in joint electorates) for the representation of women, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. However, no seats may be reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes unless Government are of opinion that the reservation is necessary having regard to the population in the village of such castes and tribes. The term of office of panchayat is four years, which may be extended up to five years by the Collector when occasion demands. Every panchayat has to elect a *sarpanch* and a deputy *sarpanch* from among its members. The *sarpanch* presides over the *panchayat* and is also the executive of the *panchayat*. Every *panchayat* has also to appoint a secretary, whose qualifications, powers, duties, remuneration and conditions of service (including disciplinary matters) are prescribed by Government. The State Government makes every year a grant to every

panchayat equivalent to 30 per cent. of the ordinary land revenue realised in the previous year within the limits of the village.

Section 26 of the Village Panchayats Act lays down that so far as the village funds at its disposal will allow and subject to the general control of the District Local Board, it shall be the duty of a panchayat to make reasonable provision within the village in regard to the following matters:—

(*a*) supply of water for domestic use ;

(*b*) the cleaning of the public roads, drains, bunds, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation) and other public places or works ;

(*c*) the removing of obstructions and projections in public streets or places and in sites not being private property, which are open to the enjoyment of the public whether such sites are vested in the V. Ps. or belong to Government.

(*d*) the construction, maintenance and repairs of public roads, drains, bunds and bridges. Provided that, if the roads, drains, bunds and bridges vest in any other public authority such works shall not be undertaken without the consent of such authority ;

(*e*) sanction, conservancy, the prevention and abatement of nuisances, and the disposal of carcasses of dead animals ;

(*f*) the preservation and improvement of the public health ;

(*g*) the maintenance and regulation of the use of public buildings, grazing lands, forest lands (including lands assigned under Section 28 of the Indian Forest Act, 1927, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation) vesting in or under the control of the panchayats.

(*h*) the lighting of the village ;

(*i*) numbering of premises ;

(*j*) control of fairs, bazars, slaughter-houses and cart stands ;

(*k*) provision (maintenance and regulation) of the burning and burial grounds ;

(*l*) improvement of agriculture ;

(*m*) the drawing up of programmes for increasing the output of agricultural and non-agricultural produce in the village ;

(*n*) the organisation of voluntary labour for carrying on community works ;

(*o*) the preparation of the statement showing the requirements of supplies and finances needed for carrying out rural development scheme ;

(p) assistance in the implementation of land reform schemes;

(q) acting as a channel through which assistance given by the Union or State Government for any of the purposes mentioned in the aforesaid clauses reaches villagers.

Under section 26A of the Act, it is competent to a panchayat to make provision within the village in regard to the following among other matters:—

(a) crop experiments;

(b) construction and maintenance of slaughter houses;

(c) relief of the destitute and sick;

(d) improvement of cattle and their breeding and the general care of the livestock;

(e) establishment of granaries;

(f) village libraries and reading rooms;

(g) planting of trees along roads in market places and other public places and their maintenance and preservation;

(h) lay-out and maintenance of play grounds for village children and of public gardens;

(i) promotion, improvement and encouragement of cottage industries;

(j) destruction of stray and ownerless dogs;

(k) construction and maintenance of *dharamshalas*;

(l) management and control of ghats which are not managed by any other authority;

(m) assistance to the residents when any natural calamity occurs;

(n) disposal of unclaimed corpses and unclaimed cattle;

(o) construction and maintenance of markets;

(p) establishment and maintenance of markets;

(q) watch and ward of the village and the crops therein; provided that the cost of watch and ward shall be levied and recovered by the panchayat from such persons in the village and in such manner as may be prescribed;

(r) construction and maintenance of houses for the conservancy staff of the panchayat;

(s) making a survey;

(t) bringing under cultivation of waste and fallow lands vested by the Government in a panchayat under section 28-B;

(u) co-operative management of resources of the village;

Under section 28 of the Act, when sufficient funds for the purpose are placed at the disposal of the panchayat by the District Local Board, the panchayat is under an obligation to:—

(*a*) supervise the labour employed by the board on works within the village ;

(*b*) supervise repairs to *dharamshalas ;*

(*c*) manage and maintain cattle pounds ; and

(*d*) execute such works as are entrusted to it by the board.

Subject to such conditions as the State Government may impose, it is also competent to a panchayat to perform other administrative duties, including the distribution of irrigation water, that may be assigned to it by the State Government after consultation with the District Local Board.

Under section 89 of the Act, every panchayat is under an obligation to levy a house tax and a tax on lands not subject to payment of agricultural assessment at rates prescribed by Government, and it is competent to a panchayat to levy all or any of the following taxes or fees at such rates and in such manner and subject to such exemptions as may be prescribed by Government, namely:—

(*i*) pilgrim tax ;

(*ii*) tax on fairs, festivals and entertainments ;

(*iii*) octroi ;

(*iv*) tax on marriages, adoptions and feasts ;

(*v*) tax on shops and hotels ;

(*vi*) tax on premises where machinery is run by steam, oil, electric power or manual labour for any trade or business and not for a domestic or agricultural purpose ;

(*vii*) fee on markets and weekly bazars ;

(*viii*) fee on cart stands ;

(*ix*) fee for supply of water from wells and tanks vesting in it for purposes other than domestic use ;

(*x*) general sanitary tax ;

(*xi*) special sanitary cess ;

(*xii*) toll on vehicles and animals ;

(*xiii*) general water rate ;

(*xiv*) special water rate ;

(*xv*) fees for watch and ward and protection of crops; and

(*xvi*) tax on brokers and dalals in the cattle markets. It is also laid down that every panchayat shall levy any one of the above taxes as may be prescribed by Government in regard to the panchayat.

It is also competent to a panchayat to levy any other State tax which has been approved by the District Local Board and sanctioned by Government.

Section 90 of the Act gives the District Local Board power to compel a panchayat to levy or increase any of the taxes or fees specified if it appears to the board that the regular income of the panchayat falls below what is necessary for the proper discharge of the obligatory duties of the panchayat.

The State Government makes every year a grant to every Panchayat equivalent to 30 per cent. of ordinary land revenue realised in the previous year within the limits of the village.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Unlike other local self-governing units, every village panchayat is empowered to constitute a body called *nyaya panchayat* to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. The nyaya panchayat is composed of five members elected by the panchayat at its first meeting out of its members. It elects its chairman from among its members and its term of office is co-extensive with that of the panchayat. The State Government have powers to remove any member of the nyaya panchayat for reasons of misconduct in the discharge of his duties, or of any disgraceful conduct, or for neglect, refusal or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

The secretary of the panchayat acts as the judicial clerk of the nyaya panchayat. Conviction by a nyaya panchayat is not deemed to be previous conviction for the purposes of the Indian Penal Code.

Under Government Notification, No. 4514/4 (26) of the Home Department, dated 20th February 1950, all nyaya panchayats in the Kolhapur district are invested with powers:—

(1) to try civil suits not affecting any interest in immoveable property upto the value of Rs. 25 and with the consent of the parties, upto the value of Rs. 100:

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(2) to take cognizance of and try the following offences, namely: —

(i) *Under the Indian Penal Code—*

	Section.
(a) Negligently doing any act known to be likely to spread the infection of any disease dangerous to life	269
(b) Fouling the water of a public spring or reservoir	277
(c) Causing danger, obstruction, or injury to any person in any public way ..	283

(ii) *Under the Cattle Trespass Act, 1871—*

Forcibly opposing the seizure of cattle or rescuing the same	24

(iii) *Under the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1890—*

(a) Practising phooka	4
(b) Killing animals with unnecessary cruelty . .	5
(c) Being in possession of the skin of a goat killed with unnecessary cruelty ...	5-A
(d) Employing animals unfit for labour ...	6
(e) Baiting or inciting animals to fight ...	6-C
(f) Permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places	7

(iv) *Under the Bombay District Vaccination Act, 1892—*

(a) Inoculating, entering a vaccination area after inoculation, and bringing person inoculated into such area	22
(b) Disobedience of order of the Magistrate for the vaccination of any unprotected child under fourteen years . . .	23
(c) Not producing child for vaccination ...	24
(d) Neglecting to take child to be vaccinated ...	25

(v) *Under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947—*

(a) Failure to cause child to attend school ...	35
(b) Employing child liable for compulsory education	36

(*vi*) *Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1933*—

(*a*) Breaches of by-laws made punishable under the Act.

(*b*) Any one who encroaches upon the property of the Village Panchayat in any way shall be punishable with a fine of Rs. 20 and in particular cases Rs. 40.

Pleaders, vakils, etc., are not permitted to appear on behalf of any party in any suit or case before a nyaya panchayat. Appeals are allowed to the District Court in civil suits and to the Sessions Court in criminal cases.

Powers of control over panchayats are given to the Collector and the District Local Board. Both of them have concurrent powers to call for information and to compel the panchayat to take into consideration any objection they have to any acts of the panchayat, either of commission or of omission, or any information which necessitates the commission of any act by the panchayat. They can also compel the panchayat to reduce the number of the staff maintained by it or the remuneration paid to them. In addition, the Collector has powers of suspension and prohibition in respect of the execution of any order or resolution of a panchayat which, in his opinion, is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of the peace. In cases of emergency, the Collector may also provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act which a panchayat is empowered to execute or do, and the immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the panchayat.

The District Local Board is authorised to carry out each year the audit of the accounts of a panchayat and forward a copy of the audit note to the Collector. If it appears to the board that a panchayat has made default in the performance of its obligatory duties, it may order the duty to be performed within a specified period, and, if the duty is not performed within that period, the board can appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expense be paid by the defaulting panchayat.

The State Government also is given powers to carry out at the cost of the panchayat any of the panchayat's obligatory duties when it appears to it that the District Local Board has neglected to take action. The State Government has also powers, after consultation with the District Local Board, to dissolve or supersede a panchayat, if, in its opinion, the panchayat had exceeded or abused its powers or made

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Administrative Structure.
LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.
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persistent default in the performance of its obligatory duties; or persistently disobeyed any of the orders of the Collector. If a panchayat is superseded, all its powers and duties will be exercised and performed by a person or persons appointed by the State Government.

In pursuance of a resolution, dated the 13th September 1950, Government have appointed in the Kolhapur district a special officer of the grade of Mamlatdar for the development of village panchayats on sound and proper lines. This officer is authorised, under section 95(*3*) of the Village Panchayats Act, to exercise the powers of a Collector and of a District Local Board under section 94 (*1*) of the Act. Several duties have also been placed on this officer, and he is expected to do everything that is possible to popularise village local self-government and to make the working of village panchayats really effective. An annual report on the activities of panchayats has to be prepared by him and submitted to the Collector before the 15th of May, and. within a fortnight thereafter, the Collector has to forward that report to the Government with his own remarks.

CHAPTER 14—JUSTICE AND PEACE.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

District Judge.

THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT WAS FORMED after the integration of the ex-Kolhapur State with the former State of Bombay on the 1st March 1949. There was a High Court of the ex-State of Kolhapur and the Civil and Criminal work then pending before that High Court was sent to the High Court of Bombay after merger. Since then the District Judge, Kolhapur, is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the District Court. Under Article 233 of the Constitution of India; appointments, posting and promotion of district judges* are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service† is made by the Governor in accordance with rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the District Court and the courts subordinate to it, including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of District Judge, is vested in the High Court.

Civil Courts.

The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders upto the value of Rs. 10,000, passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District Judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishment and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

In addition to the District Court, there are located in Kolhapur two other courts, each presided over by an Assistant Judge. The Assistant Judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction.

* Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small cause court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

† In Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil judicial posts inferior of the post of district judge.

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Civil Courts.

Subordinate to the District Judge are two cadres of Civil Judges, Junior Division and Senior Division. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division), extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject-matter. Appeals in suits or proceedings wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value are taken to the District Court, while in those wherein the subject-matter exceeds in value Rs. 10,000 are taken direct to the High Court.

There are two Civil Judges of Senior Division and two Civil Judges of Junior Division at Kolhapur. Outside Kolhapur there are eight Circle Courts, viz. at (1) Ichalkaranji, (2) Gadhinglaj, (3) Kagal, (4) Panhala, (5) Radhanagari, (6) Malkapur, (7) Kurundwad and (8) Jaisingpur. One Civil Judge (Junior Division) presides over each of the Courts at Ichalkaranji, Kagal, Radhanagari, Panhala and Jaisingpur. There are two Civil Judges at Gadhinglaj and the Civil Judges of Panhala and Jaisingpur preside also over the Courts at Malkapur and Kurundwad respectively. The Civil Judge of Radhanagari sits at Gargoti for the disposal of criminal work arising out of the Bhudargad Taluka. Excepting the Civil Judge, at Ichalkaranji all these Civil Judges outside Kolhapur function as Judicial Magistrates, First Class within the local limits of their jurisdiction.

Since the reorganisation of States, Chandgad Taluka which was formerly included in the Belgaum district is included in the Kolhapur district and it is kept under the jurisdiction of the Civil Judge-*cum*-Magistrate, First Class, Gadhinglaj, who holds his Court at Chandgad for four days in each fortnight only for the disposal of criminal work arising out of that taluka.

Criminal Courts.

The District Judge, Kolhapur. is also the Sessions Judge of the district. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of subordinate magistrates

In addition to the Sessions Judge, there are two Additional Sessions Judges. These posts of Additional Sessions Judges are held by the Assistant Judges on the Civil side. The Sessions Judge and Additional Sessions Judges can pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by them is subject to confirmation by the High Court. One of the Assistant Judges and Additional Sessions Judges are also appointed as Special Judge for disposing of criminal cases under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1952 (XLVI of 1952).

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Justice and Peace.
JUDICIAL.
Executive and Judicial Magistrates.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has classified the magistracy of the State into two categories, viz., (1) Judicial Magistrates and (2) Executive Magistrates. Judicial Magistrates are of the following classes:—(1) Presidency Magistrates; (2) Magistrates of the First Class; (3) Magistrates of the Second Class; (4) Magistrates of the Third Class; and (5) Special Judicial Magistrates. Executive Magistrates fall under the following classes:—(1) District Magistrates; (2) Sub-Divisional Magistrates; (3) Taluka Magistrates; (4) Presidency Magistrates specially empowered by the State Government; and (5) Special Executive Magistrates. The State Government may, in consultation with the High Court, direct any two or more Judicial Magistrates to sit together as a bench and invest it with the powers of a Magistrate of any class.

Presidency Magistrates work in Greater Bombay, and Special Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases or classes of cases or cases generally in any local area Special Executive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government for particular areas or for the performance of particular functions.

All Judicial Magistrates and benches of Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge who may from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them. There are no benches of Judicial Magistrates in the Kolhapur district.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are detailed in the section dealing with Land Revenue and General Administration. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or for good behaviour, however, lie from Executive Magistrates to the Court of Sessions (Section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government has power by notification to direct that appeals for such orders made by a Magistrate other than the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Sessions Again, under section 406A of the Criminal Procedure Code any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept or rejecting a surety under section 122 may appeal against such order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions. Under Section 435(4), the High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under section 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger), and 145 (procedure where disputes as to immoveable property or likely to cause breach of the peace), even though such proceeding was before an Executive Magistrate.

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. JUDICIAL. Executive and Judicial Magistrates.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the Third, Second and First Class are detailed respectively in Parts I, II and III of the Criminal Procedure Code. They may be invested with additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court, and these additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code. They are competent to pass the following sentences :—

(a) Magistrates of the First Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law ;
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 1,000.
(b) Magistrates of the Second Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 6 months, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law ;
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 200
(c) Magistrates of the Third Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding one month ;
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 50.

After the effective application of the Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act, criminal justice is dispensed by Judicial Magistrates or Civil Judges-*cum*-Judicial Magistrates. At present (July 1957) there are three Judicial Magistrates, First Class, at Kolhapur and one Judicial Magistrate, First Class, at Ichalkaranji who are doing only criminal work.

There are also four Honorary Magistrates in the district, of whom three are ladies. They are all invested with powers of Magistrates of the Second Class.

Other Law Officers.

The following are the other Law Officers of Government functioning in the Kolhapur district (July 1957) :—

District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor ;

Assistant Government Pleader and First Assistant Public Prosecutor ;

Second Assistant Public Prosecutor ;

Third Assistant Public Prosecutor ;

Honorary Assistant to the District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor ;

There are also Sub-Government Pleaders at each of the following places, viz. Ichalkaranji, Gadhinglaj, Kagal, Radhanagari, Panhala, Malkapur, and Kurundwad, Jaisingpur.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.

JUDICIAL.

Number of legal practitioners.

There were in 1956, 357 legal practitioners practising in the Kolhapur district, of whom about 25 were advocates of the Bombay High Court.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933), nyaya panchayats have been formed in a number of villages, and these institutions are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. These powers are detailed in the section relating to village panchayats. Appeals from these courts are allowed to the District Court in civil suits and to the Sessions Court in criminal cases.

Statistics of Civil Courts.

In the various courts of the Kolhapur district at the beginning of the year 1956, 2,219 suits were pending. During the same year 3,621 suits were instituted and 3,195 suits were disposed of and the number of suits pending at the end of the year was 2,645.

Of the 3,621 suits instituted, 2,389 were for money or movable property; 701 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 2,030 were of value above Rs. 100, but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 498 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000; and 139 were of value above Rs. 5,000. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 37,88,594-13-4.

Of the 3,195 suits disposed of, 519 were disposed of without trial; 515 *ex-parte*; 476 on admission of claims; 439 by compromise; 1,239 after full trial; three on reference to arbitration and four by transfers.

There were 957 appeals (including Miscellaneous and Bombay Agricultural Debtor's Relief Act) pending at the beginning of the year 1956. During the year 1956, 645 appeals were instituted and 645 disposed of and the number pending at the end of the year was 957.

Of the 645 appeals disposed of, 115 were dismissed or not prosecuted; 276 confirmed; 76 modified; 76 reversed; 99 remanded for retrial and three transferred.

Statistics of Criminal Courts.

There were 92 offences reported to the Sessions Court, Kolhapur, during the year 1956. The number of persons under trial was 320. The cases of 219 persons were disposed of during the year. Of these 219, 152 persons were acquitted or discharged and 67 were convicted. The sentences passed by the Court of Sessions were as follows:—

Four persons awarded death sentence, 21 persons awarded transportation or penal servitude, 42 persons imprisoned, no one was awarded sentence of whipping.

CHAPTER 14.

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JUDICIAL.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The following are the figures showing the Revenue and Expenditure of the Judicial Department in the Kolhapur District for the year 1956-57 :—

Revenue.

	Rs.	As.	Ps.
(1) Sale proceeds of unclaimed and escheated property.	2,870	14	8
(2) Fines by Civil and Sessions Courts.	57,664	0	2
(3) Cash receipts of record rooms .	51,117	14	9
(4) Miscellaneous receipts ..	6,601	9	9
Total .	1,18,254	7	4

Expenditure.

	Rs.	As.	Ps.
(1) Pay of officers .	1,31,422	14	0
(2) Pay of establishment .	1,82,378	5	0
(3) Pay of process serving establishment.	40,190	2	0
(4) Travelling allowance ..	7,368	10	0
(5) House rent allowance ..	14,549	11	3
(6) Dearness Allowance ..	1,64,992	0	0
(7) Contingencies ..	35,604	2	1
Total ..	5,76,505	12	4

The value of judicial stamps sold in the Kolhapur district during 1956-57 was Rs. 4,62,608-15-0.

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT.

POLICE.

Organisation.

FOR PURPOSES OF POLICE ADMINISTRATION the Kolhapur district is under the control of the District Superintendent of Police, Kolhapur district. The district, is divided into two sub-divisions, Northern and Southern, each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer (Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police). Each of these two Sub-Divisions contains nine police stations. Northern Sub-Division has eight outposts and Southern Sub-Division eleven outposts and one sub-post. The head-quarters of the Sub-Divisional Police Officers of the Northern Division is at Ichalkaranji and that of the Southern Division is at Kolhapur. Each of these Sub-divisional Officers is assisted in his work by an Inspector whose designation is Circle Police Officer. In addition, one Police Inspector in charge of Kolhapur City Police Stations is responsible for supervision over them and traffic control in the city.

For political and allied work, there is an Intelligence Branch for the whole of the district, and it is in charge of one Police Inspector assisted by one Sub-Inspector.

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. POLICE. Organisation.

There is also a Crime Branch for the district and it is in charge of a Sub-Inspector, who is also an assistant to the Intelligence Branch.

For the recruitment and training of the subordinate police and other branches of work, there is one Inspector who is designated as Home Police Inspector. Arms, ammunition and other equipment are distributed from District Headquarters by the Reserve Sub-Inspector under the supervision of the Home Police Inspector.

Strength.

Before the integration of the Kolhapur State, the Police personnel in the district numbered 45 officers and 1,376 men. The total sanctioned strength in 1956 was as under:—

	Permanent.	Temporary.
(1) District Superintendent of Police.	1	..
(2) Sub-Divisional Police officer ...	2	..
(3) Police Inspectors	4	1
(4) Sub-Inspectors of Police ..	28	11
(5) Unarmed Head Constables (foot).	150	60
(6) Armed Head Constables (foot) .	84	19
(7) Unarmed Constables (foot)	417	167
(8) Armed Constables (foot)	374	103
(9) Wireless Operators ...	2	2
(10) Head Wirelsss Operator .	...	1
Total ..	1,062	364
Grand Total ...	1,426	

This gives a permanent force of 35 officers and 1,027 men and a temporary force of 12 officers and 352 men.

Of the temporary strength, one Sub-Iispector and 11 unarmed head constables have been sanctioned for the Village Defence Organization. The remaining temporary staff is part and parcel of the permanent strength and is likely to be made permanent in due course. This strength also includes three Sub-Inspectors, eight Head Constables and 30 Police Constables (unarmed Branch), which is sanctioned for prohibition and excise work.

The total cost of the police for 1956 was Rs. 19,04,602. The sanctioned strength of the police worked out at one policeman to 2 square miles and 921 persons.

Regular Duties.

The duties of the various members of the police force are arranged according to the importance of their rank.

The District Superintendent of Police, who is executive head of the police force, is invested with the direction and control of the police under the command and control of the District Magistrate. His primary duties are to keep the force under his

control properly trained, efficient and contended and to ensure, by constant supervision, that the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his district are properly and efficiently dealt with by police force. He has to move freely among the people and ascertain their needs generally and has to be in constant touch both with the public and with his subordinates. During his regular tours he inspects every police station and outpost in the district once in a year. He visits the scenes of really serious offences where organised crime is indicated or organised gangs are at work as well as offences which affect markedly the general peace and quiet of the district.

The Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police, i.e., officers in charge of Sub-Divisions, are responsible for all crime work in their charges. Under the general orders of the District Superintendent of Police, they are responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in their Divisions and hold detailed inspections of police stations and outposts in their charge at regular intervals.

In the rural charge, the Inspector designated as Circle Police Officer is attached to the Sub-Division. Chosen for the post owing to his ability to deal with crime and criminals he is employed practically and entirely on crime work and the supervision of bad characters and gangs in his Sub-Division. He supervises and co-ordinates the crime work of different police stations in his Sub-Division.

The City Police Inspector in charge of the City Division performs the same duties as those of Inspector in the rural police stations.

The Home Inspector of Police is the Superintendent of the office of the District Superintendent of Police. He is responsible for opening the post of the District Superintendent of Police. He supervises the work of the Headquarters police during the absence of the District Superintendent of Police and the Sub-Divisional Police Officer, disposing of routine and miscellaneous correspondence work, holding proceedings on articles of clothing and accoutrements etc., received from firms and Government Supply Departments, checking and initialling account papers and signing all vouchers as P. A. to District Superintendent of Police.

The Sub-Inspector of Police is the officer in charge of the police station. He is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime in his charge and for seeing that the orders of the superiors are carried out and the discipline of the police under him is properly maintained.

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Regular Duties.

Head Constables are subject to the orders of the Sub-Inspectors placed over them and of the superior officers of the police force. They are to report to the Sub-Inspector all crimes in their beats and also to assist him in investigation and detection of crime. When in charge of a particular post or circle of villages, the Head Constable acts in all police matters in concert with the heads of the village police. When attached to the police station, he holds the charge in the absence of the Sub-Inspector and looks to all routine work including investigation of crime.

The constables perform such duties as they may be ordered by the Head Constables and superior police officers to perform.

Recruitment.

Prior to the 15th August 1947, Assistant Superintendents of Police were recruited in England and India by the Secretary of State for India in accordance with rules made by him from time to time. Since that date the power to recruit them for appointment in connection with affairs of the Union or of any State has been vested by Article 309 of the Constitution of India in the President or such other person as he may direct. Accordingly a new service called the Indian Police Service has been constituted, to which recruitment is made as follows:—

Not more than 25 per cent. of the superior posts in the total number of posts allotted to the State are filled by the State Government by promotion of members of the Maharashtra Police Service and all the remaining posts out of the total number allotted are filled by direct recruitment of persons selected on the results of a competitive examination held by or under the authority of the Union Public Service Commission and appointed to the service by the State Government.

On recruitment to the Indian Police Service, candidates are deputed for training to the Central Police Training College at Mount Abu. On passing out from the College, the candidates are required to pass a test in Police Regulations, Accounts and certain other subjects in their relation to the working of the Police Department in the State.

Ordinarily Inspectors of Police are appointed by promotion from the lower rank of the police, and no candidate is recruited direct. If, however, it is considered to recruit a direct candidate, the power to make such recruitment has been delegated to the Inspector-General of Police, the selection being made by a Board consisting of (1) the Inspector General of Police. (2) the Director of Public Instruction, (3) a Deputy Inspector-General of Police, nominated by the Inspector-General of Police, and (4) a member of the Maharashtra Public Service Commission.

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Recruitment.

Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector General of Police both by the promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the District Police Force and by direct recruitment. Candidates for direct recruitment may be either from outside the Police or from the Police Department. These candidates are in the first instance selected for training in the Police Training School, as Sub-Inspectors. The selection is made by a Selection Board consisting of the Inspector General of Police assisted by a committee of Deputy Inspector General, and the Principal, Police Training School.

Appointments of head constables are made by the District Superintendent of Police, ordinarily by promotion from among constables with approved service. Direct appointments as head constables are also made with the sanction of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police of the range.

Selection of candidates for appointment as constables is made by the District Superintendent of Police. Men from the district are generally preferred as they are more likely to have local knowledge and to be able to move about and make enquiries unobserved. Recruits for the Armed as well as Unarmed Branches are posted to District Headquarters where they receive training in drill, musketry, law and other police duties, under the direct personal control and supervision of the Reserve Sub-Inspector. They are required to pass an examination before being posted to police stations.

Armed and Unarmed Police.

There are two sections of the Police force, Armed and Unarmed. The armed section in 1956 consisted of 103 Head Constables and 477 Constables i.e., a total of 580 men. The armed force is mainly allotted the duties of guarding jails and lock-ups and escorting prisoners and treasure. The unarmed police are drilled to give them an upright and manly bearing and to enable them to turn, march and salute smartly and correctly. They are taught squad drill and physical exercises without arms. The Armed Police are instructed in squad drill, physical drill with and without arms, rifle and firing exercise, bayonet practice and fighting, riot drill, dacoit operations, guard and sentry duty, skirmishing, ceremonial musketry etc.

Literacy.

Officers and almost all Policemen were literate in the year 1956.

Armament.

The armament of the Kolhapur District Police in 1956 consisted of 581 rifles of ·303 bore, 530 muskets of ·410 bore, 65 revolvers (21--·455 bore, and 44--·38 bore). There were also 5 carbine machines (Thompson). The district had in 1956 a fleet of 16 motor vehicles including one motor cycle.

There is a Wireless Station at the District Headquarters with one Head Wireless Operator and four Wireless operators working at the station.

POLICE.
Other Duties.

A skeleton staff of three Sub-Inspectors, eight Head Constables and 30 Police Constables (unarmed) has been sanctioned for the district for prohibition and excise work. In 1956, the Police had to deal with 1,319 cases under the prohibition law, as against 1,240 in 1955; 1,366 in 1954; and 1,301 in 1953. The number of persons convicted in 1956 was 37 per 1,00,000 of population as against 34 in 1955 and 50 in 1954. Of the convicted persons per one lakh of population 37 had committed offences relating to liquor as against 32 in 1955 and 48 in 1954. Four hundred and eighty-seven persons were convicted in 1956 as against 411 in 1955 and 617 in 1954. Of these 487 persons convicted, 484 had committed offences relating to liquor and the remaining 3 were concerned in dope offences.

No juvenile offender was convicted during the year under report as in 1955 and 1954.

Figures of crime.

The total number of cases of crimes reported to the police during the years 1953 to 1956 are given below:—

	1953	*1954*	*1955*	*1956*
Total No. of cases reported to the Police.	3,911	3,922	4,073	3,349

Real serious crime including (1) riots, (2) murders, (3) attempts at murder, (4) culpable homicide, (5) grievous hurt, (6) dacoities, (7) robberies, (8) house breakings and thefts and (9) thefts, varied as follows:—

1953	...	... 1,106
1954	..	... 990
1955	..	... 955
1956		... 971

Prosecuting staff and Prosecution.

In 1956, there were seven Police Prosecutors in the district. The total number of cases conducted by the prosecuting staff was 2,265, out of which 684 ended in conviction. The total number of cases conducted by the executive staff was 1,411 out of which 434 ended in conviction

Housing.

Government quarters have been provided to 865 members of the police force in the district.

Village Police.

The village police organization is constituted under the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The administration of the village police is vested in the District Magistrate who may delegate any portion of it to an Assistant or Deputy Collector, being a Magistrate of First Class. There are 1,079 villages in the district. Each village or a group of villages has

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. POLICE. Village Police.

a Police Patil. The Police Patil is required to collect information regarding suspicious looking strangers and send it to the police station. He has to keep a strict watch over the movements of notoriously bad characters under surveillance of the police. When the patrolling police goes to the village, he has to give all the information he possesses about events in the village. It is the duty of the Village Police Patil to render assistance to any sick traveller and to maintain law and order in the village. He is assisted in his work by the village watchmen.

Home Guards.

The Kolhapur District Home Guards Unit is a voluntary body established to supplement the ordinary police force for the protection of persons, property and public safety, and for such other service to the public as it may be called upon to perform.

The Commandant General is in charge of the Home Guards organization and under him are Commandants in each district, who control the district staff. The appointments of the Commandant General and the Commandants are made by Government from among suitable non-official gentlemen, and the posts are purely honorary, carrying no remuneration. The organization is non-political and non-communal. All members have, on enrolment, to sign a pledge to the effect that they will well and truly serve the Government of Maharashtra without fear or affection, malice or ill-will or communal or political bias, and will assist to the best of their ability in the maintenance of peace and prevention of crime against person and property.

The Home Guards are trained in squad drill, lathi drill, use of arms. control of traffic, elementary law, mob fighting, unarmed combat and guard and escort drill. They are also trained in first aid and fire fighting. They are encouraged to take up social work. When called on duty, they enjoy the same powers, privileges and protection as an officer of the police force appointed under any Act for the time being in force. Their functions consist mainly of guarding public buildings, patrolling for the prevention of crime and assisting the police in their ordinary duties. They are issued with uniform and are paid duty allowance at prescribed rates whenever they are called out on duty.

At present there are 8 units of the Home Guards in this district and they are working at the following centres:—

	Name of Unit.		Total strength of each unit at the end of 1956.	Remarks.
1.	Kolhapur city	...	251	Includes 43 Lady Home Guards.
2.	Kurundwad	...	27	
3	Gadhinglaj taluka	...	38	
4.	Jaisingpur		53	
5.	Kodoli	.	58	
6.	Radhanagari taluka	.	43	
7.	Kagal taluka		94	
8.	Chandgad taluka		83	Merged from Belgaum district into Kolhapur district from 1st October 1956.
	Total	...	647	

Village Defence Parties.

A staff of one Sub-Inspector as Village Defence Officer and 11 Head Constables as Assistant Village Defence Officers has been sanctioned for this district, and are assisted by a staff of one Joint Village Defence Officer and 11 Joint Assistant Village Defence Officers with a view to organising the Village Defence Scheme.

Village Defence Parties have been formed in all the 1,079 villages in the district. The number of members was 82,440 at the end of 1956.

THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

JAILS. Location of Jails.

THERE IS ONLY A DISTRICT PRISON AT KOLHAPUR. As such prisoners convicted and sentenced for a term exceeding three months and upto two years are confined in this prison. Casual prisoners sentenced and convicted over two years and above from the district are transferred to Yeravda Central Prison. Habitual prisoners, however, are transferred to Nasik Road Central Prison. Short-term prisoners with sentences ranging from one week to a month are accommodated in the taluka subsidiary jails which are about eleven and are located at the following places:—

(1) Ajra.
(2) Bavda.
(3) Bhudargad.
(4) Chandgad.
(5) Gandhinglaj.
(6) Hatkanangle.
(7) Kagal.
(8) Panhala.
(9) Radhanagari.
(10) Shahuwadi.
(11) Shirol.

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JAILS.
Location of Jails.

These sub-jails are classified as Class III sub-jails and the administration of these sub-jails is in the hands of the personnel from the Revenue Department.

The sub-jail at Kolhapur City is a IInd Class sub-jail where a departmental Jailor is working to assist the Superintendent of a district jail at Kolhapur. The sub-jail at Ichalkaranji is also a IInd class head quarter sub-jail where also a departmental Jailor is working under the supervision of a Superintendent of district jail at Kolhapur. The Jailors at Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji are assisted by a clerk and jail guards from the department. The number of guarding establishment is (unarmed) 20 and (armed) 20 at Kolhapur Sub-Jail, and Ichalkaranji Sub-Jail is only two unarmed guards, outside guarding is done by the Police Department.

The prison at Kolhapur is classified as "District Prison" and is put in charge of a Superintendent. He is assisted by jailors, clerks, guards, Maharashtra Medical Service Class III Officer and a compounder. The total number of unarmed guards is 36 and that of armed guards 24. The police lock-ups in the district are under the direct control of Inspector-General of Police, Maharashtra State.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Prisons exercises, subject to the orders of the State Government general control and superintendence of all prisons and jails in the State. He is assisted by the Deputy Inspector-General, Personal Assistant, Superintendent of Jail Industries and other office staff members.

The Executive Officer in charge of a central or district prison is the Superintendent who is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment and control generally subject to the orders and authority of the Inspector-General. Under him are subordinate Executive Officers (like Deputy Superintendent, Jailors, Subhedars, Jamadars etc. and ministerial subordinates like steward, head clerk, senior clerk etc.) In addition there are other subordinates like medical officer, compounders, nursing orderly etc., also at each one of the central and district prisons in the State. The Convict Officers i.e., prisoners promoted to the ranks of convict overseers and night watchmen under the Jail Rules assist the jail guards in their executive duties. The services of well behaved convict overseers are being utilized now for doing patrolling duty outside the sleeping barracks but inside the jail at night time. The main wall and the outer yards are always manned for duty by the guarding staff.

Recruitment

The post of Inspector-General is generally filled in by the appointment of an I. C S. or I. A. S. officer or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of the Superintendent of Central Prison i.e., including the holder of the post of the Deputy Inspector General or by transfer of

a suitable officer in Maharashtra Medical Service Class I, or by direct recruitment. The Superintendents of Central Prisons are officers promoted from the ranks of Superintendents of District Prisons. The senior-most Superintendent of a Central Prison is usually appointed to hold the post of Deputy Inspector-General after consulting the Public Service Commission. The Superintendents of District Prisons are appointed both by direct recruitment or by promotion from amongst Jailors Grade I in the proportion of 1:2. Jailors in Grade I are also appointed both by direct recruitment and by departmental promotion in the proportion of 1:2. The candidates for direct recruitment to the post of Superintendent of a district prison and/or Jailor Grade I must be Honours graduates and they are recommended for appointment by the State Public Service Commission. A diploma in Sociology or Penology is an additional qualification. Appointments to Grade II are made by the Inspector-General by promotion of Jailors Grade II and appointments to Grade III are made by the Inspector-General fifty per cent. of which are by nomination from amongst candidates from the open market who are necessarily required to be graduates and the other fifty per cent. of the appointments are given to suitable departmental men who have passed the Matriculation Examination or its other equivalent examination. The candidates for appointment to the post of Jailor Grade III are interviewed by a Selection Board consisting of the Inspector-General and two Superintendents of prisons who are nominated by Government. The posts of sepoys are filled in by direct recruitment and the higher posts from the Guarding establishment are generally filled in by promotion according to seniority but if suitable persons according to seniority are not available, appointment to the posts in higher grade are made by selection from amongst the members of the next lower ranks or by nomination of candidates with some high academic qualifications which are fixed for each post in high grade individually.

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Recruitment.

Appointment to the posts of junior clerk are made by nomination from amongst candidates who have passed the Matriculation Examination or its equivalent. Appointment to the ministerial posts in higher grade are made by promotion generally according to seniority from amongst the members of the next lower rank. Medical officers are drafted for service in Jail Department for a period of two years from the Medical Department.

Training.

The Superintendents of Prisons and Jailors receive theoretical as well as practical training in Jail Officers' Training School at Yeravda on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work A comprehensive training programme in correctional administration has been prescribed for the said purpose and a vocational course of training has been chalked out which is designed to meet the actual requirements of jail guards in discharging their daily duties satisfactorily.

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. JAILS. Training.

An accounts test has also been prescribed for Gazetted and non-Gazetted Superior staff of the Jail Department, i.e. superintendents, jailors, stewards, clerks etc. The examination is conducted by the Public Service Commission, Bombay for Superintendents including Superintendent of Jail Industries, Jailors in Grades I and II and for members of the clerical cadre from Senior Clerk onwards and by the Inspector-General of Prisons for Jailors Grade III, Junior Clerks and technical staff.

A Physical Training Instructor visits the Jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities both to the inmates of the jail and also to the Jail Guards.

Thus it will be seen that due care has been taken to see that every jail officer and every jail subordinate gets an adequate opportunity to acquaint himself with the theoretical as well as practical sides of his duties, so that he can discharge them quite satisfactorily. The training programme has in fact gained an important place in the jail administration which is aiming at giving a material shape to the cherished idea of Mahatma Gandhi that "imprisonment should primarily aim at treating a prisoner's diseased mind since the crime which he commits is but a sign of a diseased mind, and also making him fit to go into society after his release to lead an honest life."

Guarding establishment.

A part of the guarding establishment is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison or in extra-mural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny, escape or other emergency. It is also available to mount guard over particularly dangerous prisoner or prisoners sentenced to death who are recognised in jail parlance as "condemned prisoners". The armed guards at main jails except Bombay jails belonged to the Jail Department and those at head-quarter and taluka sub-jails, were drafted for duty from the Police Department. This system of drafting armed guards from the Police Department for guarding duty at certain jails besides being uneconomical was the source of some avoidable complications particularly on occurrence of a mishap like escape of a prisoner. It has therefore been decided by Government to replace gradually the armed guards of Police Department by the armed guards of the Jail Department. The departmental armed guards are detailed at Kolhapur jail. The unarmed guards at all the Jails in the State except Taluka sub-jails belong to the Jail Department. One or more Jail guards are deputed at head quarter sub-jails from the nearest Central, District or Special Prisons. The period of deputation does not usually exceed three years without obtaining specific sanction of the Inspector-General for extension. They wear a prescribed uniform and carry with them while on duty only a baton which also is very sparingly used now-a-days.

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. JAILS. Matron.

No post of Matron is sanctioned for the Kolhapur District Prison, Kolhapur city and Ichalkaranji sub-jails but the Superintendent is empowered to engage matron locally whenever a woman prisoner is admitted to jail. Services of the matron are dispensed with as soon as the woman prisoner is discharged from jail and an extra establishment statement is submitted in her (i.e. matron's) case to the Inspector-General for sanction under rule 79(7) of the Manual of Financial Powers.

Medical Officer.

No Medical staff is sanctioned for head quarter sub-jails but the Maharashtra Medical Service Officer in charge of the local Government dispensary or the medical officer attached to the Local Board or Municipal dispensary stationed at or nearest to the place where the sub-jail is situated is deemed to be the medical officer of the jail. He receives no extra pay for the jail duty but is entitled to an allowance of Rs. 15 or Rs. 20 p.m. if the daily average number of prisoners in the jail exceeds 40 or 80 respectively. He has to visit the sub-jail regularly at least twice in a week and also at such other times as he may be sent for to attend cases of serious illness or to examine newly admitted prisoners. A small stock of medicines is always kept in the sub-jail office to treat minor cases of illness etc. and serious cases are transferred to the local Government dispensary for treatment.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class I or Class II after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, undertrials, and security or detenus. There is no separate class of political prisoners but certain rules which do not allow the grant of facilities and privileges on the score of length of sentence are relaxed in their favour under the specific orders of Government. Prisoners are also grouped as "short termers, medium termers and long termers." Prisoners with a sentence upto three months are classed as short-termers, those sentenced to three months and above but upto two years are classified as medium termers and those sentenced to two years and above as long termers. The short termers are given deterrent treatment, while in the case of medium and long termers paramount importance is given to the reformation of the prisoner. Head quarter sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short-term prisoners and undertrial prisoners only.

Jail Reform.

A Jail Reforms Committee was appointed by Government in 1946 and in their report dated August 1947, the Committee made several recommendations to Government calculated to conduce to the reformation of the prisoner and Government accepted many of those recommendations. The rules for the treatment have been liberalized. The regulations regarding corporal punishment have been tightened and whipping as a jail punishment is now to be awarded in exceptional cases after obtaining prior sanction of Government. Punishments of penal diet and gunny clothing have been abolished. Rules about letters and interviews have also been liberalised.

CHAPTER 14. — Justice and Peace. JAILS. Canteens.

Jail canteens have been opened in main jails only; where eatables, drinks, fruits etc. are available for sale to prisoners out of their earnings. The canteen thus serves as an incentive to prisoners to work and earn wages.

Canteen profits accruing from canteen transactions are utilized for purchase of articles like radios, books, accessories for staging plays and such articles to promote welfare of prisoners.

Remission of sentence.

Only long-termers come within the ambit of the rules on the subject. Prisoners confined in the main prison are granted liberal remissions which are classified as below: —

(1) Ordinary remission.

(2) Annual good conduct remission.

(3) Special remission.

(4) Blood donation remission.

(5) Remission for conservancy work.

(6) Remission for physical training.

In addition State remission is awarded by Government on occasions of public rejoicing. It is granted unconditionally and cannot be forfeited under any circumstances.

Work.

Work is arranged according to the prisoner's health. On admission the prisoner is examined by the medical officer who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. The Work Allotment Committee is constituted for Central District Jails, the members of which have to take into account health conditions of the prisoners, their aptitude, past experience etc. and assign suitable work for newly admitted prisoners with a sentence of six months and above. Any changes in the work so allotted to prisoners by the committee have to be effected only with the concurrence of the members of the Committee. No such committee is to be appointed for short term prisoners. The following are the industries in which prisoners are engaged during the period of their imprisonment at the Kolhapur District Prison: —

(1) Hand loom weaving.

(2) Pitloom weaving.

(3) Laundry.

(4) Carpentry.

(5) Gardening.

Payment of Wages.

Long term and medium term prisoners, so also security and undertrial prisoners who volunteer to work are paid 1/5th of the wages, which are paid normally for similar work outside, provided they complete their daily quota of task to the satisfaction of the authorities concerned.

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Release on parole and furlough.

A prisoner may be released on parole in cases of serious illness or death of any member of his family or his nearest relative or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole will not count as part of the sentence.

The prisoner who desires to be released on parole has to submit his application to the Jail Superintendent who has to endorse his remarks thereon and submit one copy thereof direct to Government and one copy to the Inspector-General of Prisons along with the normal roll of the prisoner concerned. Prisoners who apply for parole on false grounds or who abuse the concession or commit breaches of any of the conditions of parole are liable to be punished. Enquiries as regards genuineness or otherwise of the grounds advanced in the application are made through the local Revenue and Police Officers.

Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which will be counted as a part of his sentence.

Board of Visitors.

A Board of Visitors composing officials and non-official visitors is appointed for every head quarter sub-jail and taluka sub-jails. There are ordinarily four non-official visitors for head quarter sub-jails out of which two are members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of Government are interested in the Prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both while they are in prison and after their release are nominated by Government on the Board of Visitors on the recommendation of the District Magistrate concerned and the Inspector-General of Prisons.

The Chairman of the Board of Visitors who is usually the District Magistrate of the District arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board. Quarterly meetings of the whole Board are convened. Non-official visitors are also allowed to visit prison on any day at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman. The Board records in the Visitor's Book its observations on the result of the detailed inspection of the Jails. Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent, to the Inspector-General for necessary orders. Other remarks made by the visitors and the quarterly committee of visitors are forwarded immediately after the end of the month by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders. Other remarks made by the visitors and the quarterly committee of visitors are forwarded immediately after the end of the month by the Superintendent to the Inspector-general with such remarks as he may desire to offer.

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Jail Panchayat Committee.

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each yard by the prisoners themselves, and the jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known in jail parlance as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for those prisoners who are ignorant of the three R's under the supervision of literate convicts and paid teachers appointed only at some of the main jails in the State. Regular annual examinations are held in the jail by the Deputy Educational Inspectors. As remuneration for conducting literacy classes in jail, an amount is received as grant-in-aid from the Education Department, 25 per cent. of which is given to the convict teachers as an encouragement after the quarterly examinations of the students (prisoners) are held and the rest of the amount is utilized towards the purchase of books, boards etc. required for the literacy classes. Films of educational and reformative values are also exhibited by the District Regional Publicity Officer concerned.

Sanitation and Hygiene.

Utmost precautions are taken in treating the prisoners suffering from various diseases. As such Jail Hospitals are equipped with all possible requirements, special types of diseases are attended to with due care. All possible measures are taken against the spread of epidemics. Prisoners suffering from skin and other contagious diseases are admitted into the hospital and are not allowed to mix freely with other prisoners.

Washing soda and hair oil are issued to prisoners once a week. In addition, those doing conservancy work and employed as cooks are issued soap once a week at Government cost.

Daily Routine.

The daily Jail routine extends from 5-15 a.m. to 9-30 p.m. The actual working hours are from 8-15 a.m. to 10-45 a.m. and 11-45 a.m. to 4-15 p.m. i.e., 7 hours in all and other parts of routine include time for meditation, congregational prayers, physical training, games, social adjustments, talks, singing of devotional songs, education classes and reading of news-papers and books. Central and district prisons in the State have extensive factories comprising various sections like Textile, Carpentry, Smithy, Mochi etc. Prisoners in headquarter sub-jails are employed in gardens attached to the Jail. Prison services include sweeping of barracks, kitchen, conservancy etc. and works like manufacture of narrow tape, cot tape etc.

CHAPTER 14.
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JAILS.
Daily Routine.

The authorised accommodation and daily average population of Kolhapur District Prison and Kolhapur Sub-jail and Ichalkaranji Sub-jail in Kolhapur Dstrict for the year 1957 was as under: —

Name of the Jail.	Sanctioned accommodation.			Daily average number for the year 1957.		
	Males.	Women.	Total.	Males.	Women.	Total.
1. Kolhapur District ..	114	..	114	174	..	174
2. Kolhapur Sub-Jail ..	104	21	125	100	3	100
3. Ichalkaranji Sub-Jail ..	42	..	42	27	..	27

JUVENILES AND BEGGARS DEPARTMENT.

JUVENILES AND BEGGARS DEPARTMENT.
Legislation.

IN MAHARASHTRA STATE THERE ARE THREE PIECES OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION the aim of which is to protect children and to prevent juveniles, adolescents and young adults from becoming habitual criminals, and they are:—(1) the Bombay Children Act (LXXI of 1948); (2) the Bombay Borstal Schools Act (XVIII of 1929); and (3) the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act (XIX of 1939). While the Children Act deals with children below 16 years of age, the Borstal Schools Act is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21, and the Probation of Offenders Act provides for offenders of any age, especially those between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation for life. In addition, there is the Bombay Habitual Offenders Restriction Act (LI of 1947). This Act was passed with a view to making provision for restricting the movements of habitual offenders, for requiring them to report themselves, and for placing them in settlements.

Children Act.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also for the trial of youthful offenders. It gives protection to four principal classes of children, *viz.*, (1) those who are neglected, destitute or living in immoral surroundings and those in moral danger; (2) uncontrollable children who have been reported as such by their parents; (3) children, especially female children, who have been used to begging and other purposes by mercenary persons; and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of older persons or by themselves have committed offences under the various laws of the land. Such children are taken charge of either by the police or by officers known as probation officers and in most cases are kept in remand homes. A remand home is primarily meant as a place where a child can be safely accommodated during the period its case is being considered. It is also meant to be

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a centre where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs fully provided for by wise and careful consideration. After enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents have been completed, they are placed before special courts known as "juvenile courts", and dealt with according to the provisions of the Children Act. If the home conditions are found to be satisfactory, and if what is needed is only friendly guidance and supervision, then the children are restored to their parents and placed under the supervision of a trained probation officer. If the home conditions are unwholesome and uncongenial, the children are committed to institutions known as "certified schools" or "fit person institutions". "Fit person" includes any association established for the reception or protection of children. At these schools or institutions the children receive training according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book-binding, tailoring, agriculture, poultry-farming, goat-rearing, gardening, cane-work, knitting, etc. Youthful offenders, when implicated in any offence along with adult offenders, have to be tried separately in juvenile courts without the paraphernalia of criminal courts. The technique employed in juvenile courts is entirely different from that in adult courts. Penal terms are avoided, and even the word "punishment" has been dropped from the enactment in describing the treatment to be meted out. The children are regarded only as victims of circumstances or of adults.

Borstal School Act.

Adolescent criminals coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Dharwar. This Institution now comes under the Mysore Government on account of the States Reorganization. Factory work and agriculture form two main heads of vocational training. Weaving; manufacture of furniture, stationery and buttons; and smithy are some of the other vocations taught. The adolescents sent to this school are given such individual training and other instruction and are subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as will conduce to their reformation. However, boys found to be too incorrigible or unsociable to be kept in the Borstal School are transferred to the Juvenile Section of the Prison at Yeravda. Similarly, if the Inspector General of Prisons thinks that any prisoner in the Juvenile Section can be better treated to his advantage if he is sent to the Borstal School, he is accordingly transferred. Both juveniles and adolescents, when they have finished a certain period of residence in the institutions to which they are sent and have acquired some proficiency in a trade are released under a licence as prescribed in the Rules, are allowed to live in their homes, or, if they are destitute, in "After-care hostels" (institutions run by non-official agencies) under supervision, and efforts are also made to find employment for them.

Machinery to enforce legislation.

For the proper enforcement of the legislative enactments mentioned above, machinery both official and non-official, is provided. The non-official machinery is provided by the

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Machinery to enforce legislation.

Maharashtra State Probation and After-care Association, Poona, with a net-work of affiliated bodies called the District Probation and After-care Associations which are actively functioning in more than a dozen districts of the State. These associations provide "remand homes" and "after-care hostels" and also employ probation officers to make enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of children as also to supervise the young persons released either directly by courts or on licence from certified schools and the Borstal School, Dharwar. As regards offenders dealt with under the Probation of Offenders Act, the work of the District Association consists of only in making preliminary enquiries regarding the cases of alleged offenders referred to them and in carrying on, in selected areas, supervision of offenders released on probation.

The official agency is the Juvenile and Beggars Department. Until 1934, the Juvenile Department, as it was then known, was controlled by the Education Department, but from April 1934, it was attached to the Backward Class Department under the control of the Home Department. The Backward Class Officer was designated as Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. In March 1946, the administration of the Bombay Beggars Act (XXIII of 1945), was added to the duties of the Backward Class Officer. As work increased and the Backward Class Officer could not be expected to devote much attention to the expansion of work under the social laws relating to children, from the Juvenile Branch, the Maharashtra State Probation and After-care Association, and the Beggars Branch were divorced from the control of the Backward Class Officer from June, 1947 and these three branches were constituted into a separate department called "the Juveniles and Beggars Department" under a full-time Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions. This Officer is under the control of the Labour and Social Welfare Department of the Secretariat so far as the administration of the Children Act and the Bombay Beggars Act is concerned. The Home Department of the Secretariat, which deals with the Probation of Offenders Act, guides and controls his activities in relation to that Act.

So far as the Kolhapur District is concerned, the Beggars Act has not yet been applied to any part of it. There are no institutions for beggars either run by Government or certified under the Act in the District of Kolhapur.

The Children Act was applied in 1949 to the area comprised in the District of Kolhapur.

A probation officer of the Government cadre is deputed by the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools to the District Probation and After-Care Association, Kolhapur. He has to assist the Juvenile Court Magistrate in disposing of the cases

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under the Bombay Children Act. He has to work as Superintendent of Remand Home and also to attend to the routine work of the Association.

The duties of probation officers are—

(1) to study the children that are brought before the Juvenile Court and to submit reports regarding them to the court suggesting a treatment programme;

(2) to supervise the children placed under their supervision by the Juvenile Court;

(3) to conduct inquiries regarding applications received by the Juvenile Court;

(4) to conduct the inquiries referred to the District Probation and After-Care Association by other institutions in respect of children and beggars;

(5) to conduct inquiries regarding children proposed to be released on licence from different certified schools and the Borstal School, Dharwar, and to supervise such children as are released on licence;

(6) to conduct inquiries and supervision work under the Probation of Offenders Act; and

(7) to do propaganda work to further the objects of the legislation relating to children and youthful offenders.

Although the Act contemplates the establishment of a separate Juvenile Court in each district, no full-time Magistrate as yet has been appointed for Kolhapur. The local Judicial Magistrate, First Class, at Kolhapur works as the Presiding Officer of the Juvenile Court. The Juvenile Court is held once a week in the Remand Home to dispose of cases under the Bombay Children Act. One or two lady honorary magistrates advise the Presiding Officer of the Juvenile Court in respect of the disposal of cases under trial.

There is a Remand Home for Boys in Kolhapur near the Padmala Corner run by the District Probation and After-Care Association. The District Association has its own new buildings for Remand Home for boys only. Girls are remanded in the Karvir Anathashram (Anath Mahilashram), Kolhapur.

Certified Schools.

There are no Certified Schools in the Kolhapur District.

Fit Person Institutions.

There are following four Fit Person Institutions in this district:—

(1) Hindu Kanya Chhatralaya, Kolhapur.

(2) Mahatma Gandhi Vasatigriha, Camp Rukadi, District Kolhapur.

(3) Anath Mahilashram, Kolhapur.

(4) Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Samstha, Juna Budhwar, Kolhapur.

Habitual Offenders Restriction Act.

There is no After-Care hostel run by the District Probation and After-Care Association.

The Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions is also the Reclamation Officer, Maharashtra State. The two settlements viz., (1) Industrial and Agricultural Settlement, Bijapur and (2) Industrial and Agricultural Settlement, Khanapur, have been transferred to the Mysore State on account of the States Reorganisation.

Unlike the Criminal Tribes Act, which has been repealed, the Habitual Offenders Restriction Act is made applicable to persons of all castes and communities alike and restrictions are imposed only after judicial enquiry as prescribed under the Act.

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LAND RECORDS.

Introduction.

DEPARTMENT OF LAND RECORDS.

AFTER THE MERGER OF STATES AND JAHAGIRS ETC. in the former Bombay State the whole of the Kolhapur district has been newly formed since 1st August 1949 of the former State areas of Kolhapur Darbar (Kolhapur Government), eight Jahagiris, Kurundwad State and the villages transferred from Miraj State and eight villages of Belgaum district. After the Reorganisation of States in November 1956, the Chandgad Taluka of the Belgaum district was included in Kolhapur district.

There was no uniform system of land assessment upto the time of 1864, when Ramrao Tadpatri undertook the work of measuring the land which is called "Dagawari Mojani" and determining the classification value of each piece of land to fix the assessment. But it was not based on any scientific basis. The land revenue system then prevailing in the State was a kind of rayatwari, under which an annual agreement was entered into with the individual cultivator who had to pay rent only for the lands which he cultivated with the further concession that he was entitled to abatement should he prove that they were not productive. The management of the State came under British supervision in 1844, and Mr. G. S. A. Anderson, serving in the Revenue Survey of British India was appointed Political Agent of Kolhapur. Mr. Anderson had the original survey and settlement carried out by the British Survey Department between 1869 and 1895. Similarly the revision survey and settlement works were entrusted to the British Survey Department in 1898 and were completed in 1906

The charge of boundary marks was devolved on the Collector (Sarsubha) as per Section 124, Land Revenue Code, Revision Survey Settlement. Some talukas in which revision survey rates were introduced in 1898 became ripe for settlement in 1928. The Record of Rights was introduced in two mahals and Pot Hissas were to be measured to complete the work in all its aspects. To undertake all this work under their control the Ex-Kolhapur State Government started their own Survey department in 1928.

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Thus the whole of the district, though formed of former State and Jahagiri villages, has been scientifically surveyed, classified and settled as stated above, except 33 former Bavada Jahagir villages. As regards introduction of settlement in these villages, the work is in progress (September 1957. The survey and classification work has been completed.

The current settlements have long expired in almost all the talukas of the district and they are due for further revision settlement.

Survey.

Survey was done by chain and cross staff. The unit of area is the English acre with its sub-divisions like gunthas etc. i.e., 121 square yards equal to one guntha and 40 gunthas make an acre. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the land records under an indicative number. That of the sub-division too is so entered under an indicative number subordinate to that of the survey number of which it is a portion.

Village, Taluka and District Map for all surveyed villages.

Accurate village maps have been prepared for all surveyed villages showing the survey numbers and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, nallas, trees, forests, wells etc. From these village maps, taluka and district maps were constructed on a scale of 1″ = 2 miles.

Classification.

The main classes of lands recognised were dry crop, garden and rice and each field as classified with reference to the texture of the soil, its depth and deteriorating factors, extra advantages, if any, and distance from the village market. In the case of rice and garden lands in addition to the soil factor, the water factor was also classified in consideration of the duration of the water supply and kind of crops grown. The classification value was expressed in terms of annas, 16 annas representing the standard. The soil classification as originally made and confirmed at revision or made during the revision survey is final and no general reclassification of soil is made again at any further revision settlement (section 106, Land Revenue Code). However in case of physical deterioration the holder is entitled to reclassification of his lands and consequent reduction of assessment.

All improvements made at the cost of the holder are exempt from taxation for a period of 30 years immedately preceding the year in which settlement is introduced (section 117-H, L. R. C.). Thereafter they are liable to taxation.

Settlement and Assessment.

The whole district has been surveyed and settled. The maximum groups proposed in any one taluka are eight. The standard rates represent the normal assessment per acre of land in a group of that of 16 annas classification value.

After the rates are sanctioned by Government, the assessment of each holding is calculated with reference to its relative classification value. The following note describes the procedure of settlement and assessment current in the Bombay State at present (December, 1957):—

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Settlement and Assessment.

Prior to 1939, the settlement procedure was prescribed by administrative orders of Government under the Land Revenue Code. The settlement procedure was first brought on to the Statute Book under the Amendment Act, 1939 (Bombay XX of 1939). Under the Land Revenue Code Amendment Act (XXVIII of 1956) certain changes have been made in the settlement procedure. The changes in brief involve a shift in emphasis from the general economc conditions of the area and rental values to the prevalent prices and yields of principal crops. The various provisions governing the settlement procedure are contained in Chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code and Chapter III-A of the Land Revenue Rules. The prescribed procedure is, in brief, as under:—

"Settlement" is defined as the result of operations conducted in a zone in order to determine the land revenue assessment [Section 117-C(1)].

"Zone" is defined as a local area comprising a taluka or a group of talukas or portions thereof of one or more districts, which is contiguous and homogeneous in respect of:—

(*i*) Physical configuration,

(*ii*) Climate and rainfall,

(*iii*) Principal crops grown in the area, and

(*iv*) Soil characteristics.

[Section 117-C(1-A)].

The Settlement Officer (appointed by the State Government under Section 18, Land Revenue Code) examines fully the past revenue history of the zone with a view to assessing the general effect of the incidence of assessment on the economic conditions of the zone He then proceeds to divide the lands to be settled into groups and fixes the standard rates for each class of land in such groups

The groups are formed on a consideration of the following obligatory factors viz.:—

(*i*) Physical configuration,

(*ii*) Climate and rainfall.

(*iii*) Prices and

(*iv*) Yield of principal crops.

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If the Settlement Officer thinks it necessary to do so, he may also take into account the factors specified in clause (a) (i) of proviso of the sub-section (2) of Section 117-G viz.:—

(*a*) Markets,

(*b*) Communications,

(*c*) Standard of husbandry,

(*d*) Population and supply of labour,

(*e*) Agricultural resources,

(*f*) Variations in the area of occupied and cultivated lands during the last 30 years.

(*g*) Wages,

(*h*) Ordinary expenses of cultivating principal crops, including the wages of the cultivator for his labour in cultivating the land,

(*i*) Sales of lands used for agriculture.

[Section 117 G-(2)].

" Standard rate " is defined with reference to any particular class of land in a group, as the value of one-sixteenth of the average yield of crops per acre on land in that class of sixteen annas classification value [Section 117-C (5)].

Improvement made at the cost of the holders are exempted from enhancement of assessment for a period of 30 years immediately preceding the date on which the settlement expires (Section 117-H). The Settlement Officer is required to formualte his proposals for settlement on the above basis and submit a comprehensive report, to the Collector(s) concerned. The report would contain:—

(*i*) the various statistics and data collected by him in the prescribed forms,

(*ii*) a statement showing the effect of his proposals as compared to that of the previous settlement in force [Land Revenue Rule 19-B(1)].

The settlement report is published in the regional language in each village in the prescribed manner, together with a notice stating the existing standard of rates for each class of land and the extent of increase or decrease proposed by the Settlement Officer. A period of three months from the date of notice is allowed for any objections to the settlement proposals (Section 117-J).

Provision is made for referring settlement proposals to the Revenue Tribunal by the State Government at the instance of aggrieved persons (who have to deposit the prescribed amount of cost) within two months from the date of the notice (Section 117-K).

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After taking into account the objections, the Collector forwards the Settlement Officer's report to the State Government through the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, with his remarks (Section 117-K).

The settlement report together with the objections and the recommendations of the Bombay Revenue Tribunal is required to be placed on the table of each chamber of the Legislature and the proposals can be discussed in the Legislature (Section 117-L).

Thereupon, the State Government passes final orders on the settlement report (Section 117-L) and, after a notice of the orders has been given in the prescribed manner, the settlement is deemed to have been introduced (Section 117-O).

The assessment to be imposed on each holding in the case of an original settlement is determined by the application of the standard rates to the classification value of the land through the medium of Jantris (table of calculation) prepared by the Superintendent of Land Records, and in the case of a revision settlement, it is worked out by increasing or decreasing the old assessment in the same proportion as there is an increase or decrease in the new standard rates over the old ones (Land Revenue Rule, 19-H).

A settlement ordinarily remains in force for 30 years (Section 117-E).

Government may, after the expiry of every ten years from the date on which settlement was introduced under Section 117-O, enhance or reduce the assessment on lands in any zone by placing a surcharge or granting a rebate on the assessment by reference to the alterations of prices of the principal crops in such zone (Section 117-M).

Additional water advantages accrued at the cost of Government can be assessed during the currency of the settlement. (Section 117-Q).

Record of Rights.

The Record of Rights Law (contained in chapter X of the Land Revenue Code) was enacted in 1913 in the Union area and it was introduced in the former State areas in 1928 except the Jahagiri villages. The introduction of Record of Rights work in the Revenue Department under the Post-War Reconstruction Scheme No. 75, in 288 Jahagiri villages is in progress. According to Section 135-B (i) of the Land Revenue Code, the Record of Rights contains the following particulars:—

(a) the names of all persons who are holders, occupants, owners or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the rent or revenue thereof;

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Record of Rights.

(b) the nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions or liabilities attached thereto ;

(c) the rent or revenue, if any, payable by or to any of such persons ;

(d) such other particulars as the State Government may prescribe under the rules made in this behalf.

The State Government has now applied the law to all the tenancies also under section 135-B(2). Any acquisition of a right in land is to be reported to the village officers by the person acquiring it unless it is registered (Land Revenue Code 135-C). Failure to carry out this obligation is liable to fine by way of late fees (Section 135-E, Land Revenue Code).

Land Records Department.

The Land Records department was created in 1884 when the Revision Survey and Settlement operations were nearing completion in the Union areas. But in Kolhapur State, the original and revision survey settlement operations having been completed by the British Survey department under the Superintendent, Revenue Survey, Maratha States and the Survey Commissioner, the necessity of creating a separate department was not felt by the former State authorities till some of the talukas became ripe for second revision survey in 1928 and the necessity of up-to-date maintenance of the Record of Rights arose. To undertake all these works in all aspects, the Kolhapur Government started their own Survey Department in 1928. The Department so started was known as Survey and Settlement Office and the officer in charge of it for the Kolhapur State was designated as the Survey and Settlement Officer, Karvir Ilakha, and was a gazetted officer of the prant officer's grade of the former State. He was directly under the control of the Sarsubha (Collector). After merger the staff working under the Survey and Settlement Officer was absorbed in the Land Records department on 1st August, 1949 and thus commenced the working of the Land Records department in Kolhapur district. The functions and duties of the Survey and Settlement Office were the same as of the Land Records department. They are as under:—

(i) to maintain all survey and classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping very careful notes of all changes, and for this purpose to carry out field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records ;

(ii) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land ;

(iii) to help to reduce, simplify and cheapen litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records ;

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Land Records Department.

(*iv*) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of Record of Rights and of the periodical inspection of the boundary marks;

(*v*) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations;

(*vi*) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys and arrange for their proper maintenance;

(*vii*) to undertake special surveys for private individuals or for public bodies (such as survey of *inam* villages, surveys in connection with railway, municipal and local boards, community projects, town planning schemes, extension of village sites etc., and for the defence and other Government departments;

(*viii*) to maintain up-to-date all village maps and to reprint and arrange for their supply to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to the public;

(*ix*) to train the revenue officers in survey and settlement matters; and

(*x*) to undertake the survey of *pot hissas*.

In addition to the normal duties of the Department referred to in the foregoing para, this department is, at present (September, 1957) entrusted with the execution of three major schemes viz. schemes No. 74, 75 and 77-A, under the Five-Year Post-war Reconstruction Plan.

Organisation.

The pre-merger situation and organisation is given above in detail. After merger, the District Inspector of Land Records, Kolhapur, is the principal officer in charge of the Land Records department in the district. He is a gazetted officer (of the Mamlatdar's rank) appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and is directly subordinate to the Superintendent, Land Records, Poona Circle, in all technical matters. He is also a subordinate of the Collector of Kolhapur and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector of the district in the matter of survey and land records.

His present subordinate staff after merger comprises of:—

(*a*) clerk to District Inspector of Land Records;

(*b*) one District Survey, ten Cadastral Surveyors;

(*c*) District Survey Office staff consisting of one headquarter assistant, record keeper, deputy record keeper, scrutiny clerk, record karkun, two utara karkuns (one permanent and one temporary).

(*d*) staff of four maintenance surveyors, one City Surveyor, clerk and two City Surveyor's copying clerks under the City Survey Mahalkari.

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(e) staff of 66 *pot hissa* surveyors under six *Nimtandars* and two clerks ;

(f) staff of 30 Circle Inspectors (including Circle Officers) working under the Collectors.

The staff shown under (a), (b), (c) work directly under the District Inspector of Land Records and that under (d) under the City Survey Mahalkari, a revenue officer in charge of City Survey Office at Kolhapur, and that at (e) under the special Superintendent of Land Records for *pot hissa* survey. The staff under (f) works under the control of the Collector.

Duties and Functions of the District Inspector of Land Records and his staff.

The main duties of the District Inspector of Land Records are :—

(a) to supervise, and take a field test of the measurement, classification and *pot hissa* work done by the district, cadastral, maintenance and *pot hissa* surveyors ;

(b) to exercise check over the proper and prompt disposal of all measurement and other work done by the survey staff and the district survey office establishment, by scrutinising their diaries and monthly statements (*Mahewars*) ;

(c) to take a small test of the work of as many Circle Inspectors and village officers as possible with a view to seeing that they understand their duties in respect of (1) Record of Rights, (2) the tenancy and crop registers, and (3) the boundary marks, repairs work etc. During his village inspections, the District Inspector sees that the Government waste lands are not being unauthorisedly used (his test is meant to be qualitative and not merely quantitative) ;

(d) to be responsible for the maintenance of the theodolite stones in the village surveyed in the minor triangulation method and to arrange for their inspection and replacement where necessary :

(e) to compile the Huzur statistical (Agricultural) forms Nos. I, II and III with the clerical aid placed at his disposal by the Collector ;

(f) to maintain the accounts and watch the recovery of city survey and *pot hissa* dues ;

(g) to inspect the city survey offices every year, and to send the inspection memoranda (in triplicate) to the Superintendent of Land Records, who forwards one copy to the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and one to the City Survey Officer through the Collector of the district, with his own remarks thereon ;

(h) to arrange, in consultation with the Collector of the district concerned, for the training of the Junior Indian Administrative Service officers, the District Deputy Collectors, the candidates for the posts of Mamlatdars, and Circle Inspectors, clerks, talathis in survey and settlement matters ;

LAND RECORDS. Duties and Functions of the District Inspector of Land Records and his staff.

(i) to advise the Revenue Officers in the district in all technical matters concerned with the maintenance of the survey records and the Record of Rights (referring cases of doubt to the Superintendent, Land Records);

(j) to see to the correctness and punctuality of the work done in the District Survey Office; and

(k) to inspect the work of repairs of boundary marks in at least one village in each circle, according to the fixed programme.

District and Cadastral Surveyors.

The staff of district and cadastral surveyors deals with the routine measurement and classification work, whether done for Government (e.g., in land acquisition cases etc.) or on private applications, civil court partition decrees etc. In the case of private work, the prescribed measurement fees, on the fixed fees system, are recovered from the parties in advance. The District Surveyor deals with such measurement and classification cases as cannot be ordinarily entrusted to the cadastral surveyors on account of their complicated nature, size, importance or urgency. During rains the district and cadastral surveyors assist the Head Quarter Assistant in such work as clearing of arrears of correction work of survey records in measurement and classification cases, etc.

District Survey Office and the Head Quarter Assistant.

The district survey office is in charge of the Head Quarter Assistant who acts under the orders of the District Inspector of Land Records. The Head Quarter Assistant and his staff are responsible for keeping the survey records up-to-date and in proper order. He deals with all correspondence connected with records (under the signature of the District Inspector of Land Records). In urgent circumstances, the Head Quarter Assistant disposes of the references under his own signature in the absence of the District Inspector of Land Records, informing the latter of the action taken by him. He recovers and accounts for the fees received for private measurement work, according to the prescribed procedure. He also issues certified extracts from the survey records and supplies printed maps to the applicants on payments of prescribed charges. The district survey office also issues the measurement cases to the surveyors for measurement and keeps a watch over their prompt and proper disposal, scrutinizes the survey work in the office and takes action to get all changes effected in the survey records. In this connection necessary *kamiasti patraks* (with their abstracts) signed by the District Inspector of Land Records and countersigned by the Superintendent of Land Records and *akarphod patraks* signed by the District Inspector of Land Records, are sent to the revenue authorities for the correction of the village and taluka records and maps.

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Maintenance Surveyors.

The Maintenance Surveyor staff is responsible for the maintenance of the city surveys and the records including the Record of Rights and maps connected therewith and assist the revenue administration of the city surveyed areas. They therefore, work under the immediate control of the revenue officers in charge of the city survey, but the technical and administrative control of the staff lies with the District Inspector of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records. Such survey has been introduced in the Kolhapur city during the former State regime originally in 1884 and revised in 1939:

The city surveys at Ichalkaranji, Wadgaon Bavada, Jaisingpur, Panhala and Gadhinglaj though originally surveyed during the former State regime are not under regular maintenance, mainly due to incompleteness in them as compared with city surveys in Union areas. The work has, therefore, been completed after merger under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code, Section 131, and in the City Survey Manual.

The cost of maintenance of the city survey, is, as usual, borne by Government in the case of city survey at Kolhapur and the same procedure is to be followed in the remaining city surveys as soon as they come under regular maintenance.

There are no village sites surveyed so far, in the Kolhapur district or any proposals in progress in this connection.

Pot Hissa Surveyors.

The *pot hissa* surveyor staff started its working in Kolhapur State on 15th November, 1928.

The *pot hissa* surveyor staff does the measurement work of the sub-divisions of the Survey Numbers for keeping the Record of Rights up-to-date. Out of the 977 villages of the district, the original pot hissa survey work has been completed in 805 villages and it is in progress in the remaining 172 villages spread up in 3 talukas.

The measurement of new sub-divisions, is, therefore, not carried on except in the case of villages taken up for consolida-tion schemes.

During the rains, the staff reforms the task of working out *hissawar* assessment (*akarphod patraks*) and preparation of duplicate sketches etc. for the use of the village officers. The cost of the pot-hissa survey operations is recovered from the land-holders under Section 135-G (*b*), Land Revenue Code.

Circle Inspectors.

The staff of Circle Inspector is primarily meant to assist the revenue officers in the up-to-date maintenance of the village records and land records kept at the village and to assist the revenue administration, and are, therefore, under the control of the Collector. They supervise the work of village officers, and their technical work of the maintenance of the land records at the village is supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records. Therefore, their diaries pass through the District Inspector of Land Records.

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LAND RECORDS. Post-War Reconstruction Schemes.

In addition to the normal duties of the department referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, the Land Records Department is, at present, (September, 1957) entrusted with the execution of the following three post-war reconstruction schemes.

Scheme No.	Description.
74	... Consolidation of holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.
75	... Survey of inam villages in the State for the introduction of Record of Rights.
77-A	... Settlement of unsettled inam villages.

Though these schemes are for the premerger areas of the State, they are made applicable to the Kolhapur district even after its merger in the former Bombay State.

THE SALES TAX DEPARTMENT.

SALES TAX.

THE SALES TAX has now become the most important source of revenue to the State, as it contributes to the exchequer more than any other head of revenue, and in 1953-54 it yielded 15 crores of rupees and formed 28·45 per cent. of the tax revenue of the State.

A general sales tax was first introduced in 1946 by a Governor's Act, which in the course of time underwent various amendments by the legislature. The Act that now governs the levy of sales tax is the Bombay Sales Tax Act (III of 1953) as amended by the Bombay Sales Tax Laws (Amendment) Act, 1957 (XVI of 1957).

Under section 5 of the Act dealers whose turnover either of all sales or of all purchases in a year exceeds Rs. 25,000 are liable to pay the tax. Dealers who import goods from outside the State of Bombay and dealers who manufacture or process any goods have to pay the tax if their turnover of sales or of purchases exceeds Rs. 10,000 a year, provided the value of the goods imported, or manufactured or processed, respectively, exceeds Rs. 2,500.

The system of tax as embodied in the Act is briefly as follows: —

There are three classes of tax, a "sales tax," a "general sales tax," and a "purchase tax." The "purchase tax" is, however, not a separate tax and is only intended to seal off a loophole for evasion of either of the other two taxes. In effect, therefore, there is only a two point tax system, namely, a tax generally levied at the first stage of sale (sales tax) and a tax levied generally at the last stage of sale (general sales tax).

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Revenue and Finance.

SALES TAX.

A dealer registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, who is not liable to pay tax under Section 5 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1953 is nevertheless liable to pay tax under Section 5A of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1953 on his sales of any goods in respect of the purchase of which he has furnished a declaration under sub-section *(4)* of Section 8 of the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956 or on the sales of any goods in the manufacture of which such goods have been used.

No tax is levied on goods specified in Schedule A, containing 42 entries. These entries contain:—

(*i*) goods required mostly by agriculturists for cultivation, e.g., agricultural implements worked or operated exclusively by human or animal agency of the following kinds: chaff-cutters, clod crushers, harrows, iron and leather mhots, iron ploughs and plough points, pick-axes, *rahats*, shovels, sickles, spades and wooden seed drills (entry 1); cattle, sheep and goats (5); cattlefeeds including fodder and other concentrates but excluding cotton seed (6); fertilizers (17); and manures including oil cakes (32);

(*ii*) necessaries of the poorer sections of the community, e.g., betel leaves (2); bread (3); butter-milk and curds (4); cereals and pulses in all forms (7)*; chillies, chily powder, tamarind and turmeric, whole or powdered (9)*; eggs (15); firewood and charcoal (18); fish (19)*; flour including atta, *maida*, *suji* and bran (20)*; flowers (21); food and non-alcoholic drinks consumed at a hotel, restaurant, refreshment room, eating house or other place where such food and drinks are served (except when the cost of food and drinks consumed at one time by one person exceeds one rupee) (22); fresh fruits (23); fresh vegetables and edible tubers (24); Ghongadis, Kambalis or Kambals woven on handlooms exclusively out of hand spun woollen yarn and sold at a rate not exceeding Rs. 12 each; glass bangles sold at a rate not exceeding two annas each (24-A); Ghongadis, Kambalis or Kambals woven on handlooms exclusively out of hand spun woollen yarn and sold at a rate not exceeding Rs. 12 each (25); gur (26); kerosene (28); kum-kum (30); *Mangalsutra* with a black glass beads sold at a rate not exceeding Rs. 5 each (31); meat (33)*; milk, whole or separated (34); salt (37); slates and slate pencils; chalk sticks and crayons; foot-rules, exercise and drawing books and lead pencils; and mathematical and drawing instrument boxes used by primary and secondary school students (38); text-books, books for supplementary reading and school atlases sanctioned by the State Government, Director of Education for the State of Bombay, the Educational Inspectors of Divisions or Secondary School Certificate Examination Board of approved by the Bombay Municipal Schools Committee (41); and water, other than aerated and mineral waters (42);

* Except when sold in sealed containers.

(iii) implements or raw materials of cottage industries and products of cottage industries, e.g., charkha and other implements used in the production of handspun yarn or handwoven cloth as may be specified by the State Government by notification in the Official Gazette (8); cloth woven in handlooms sold at a rate not exceeding Rs. 2 per yard (10); clothes and other articles of Khaddar (11)*; cotton yarn and cotton thread (13); edible oils manufactured in ghanis by human or animal agency (14); handmade paper (27)*; khaddar (29)*; Palm products—(1) When sold by a producer recognised for this purpose by the Collector of Sales Tax, Maharashtra, on the recommendation of All India Khadi and Village Industries Board, set-up under Government of India, Ministry of Commerce and Industries. (2) When sold by other dealer where such products have been purchased from a producer recognised by the Collector of Sales Tax in this behalf;

(*iv*) sources of power, e.g., coal gas (when sold by a gas supply company to a local authority for consumption by such local authority for the purpose of street lighting) (12); electrical energy (16); motor spirit (*as defined*) (35);

(*v*) periodical journals published at intervals not exceeding one month (36);

(*vi*) stamp paper sold by vendors duly authorised under the provision of the Indian Stamp Act, 1899 (39); and

(*vii*) Sugar-cane (40).

Schedule B lists 79 specific entries and entry 80 "all goods other than those specified from time to time in Schedule A and in the proceeding entries." The first 8 of these entries composed of certain raw materials of industry, viz., raw cotton (whether ginned or unginned) including cotton waste (1); cotton seeds (2); artificial silk yarn (3); hides and skins (4), oil-seeds (5); raw silk and silk yarn (6); raw wool, wool tops and woollen yarn (other than knitting yarn) (7); and staple fibre and staple fibre yarn (8); and entries 9 to 18, which specify those goods out of the goods declared essential by Parliament [under the Essential Goods (Declaration and Regulation of Tax on Sales or Purchase) Act, 1952] which are not specified in Schedule A to the Act, are subject only to the general sales tax and *not* to the sales tax. On the other hand, entries 19 to 22, viz. betel nuts (19); text-books and periodical journals except such text-books and journals as are declared tax-free under entries 36 and 41 of Schedule A, and other than account books, diaries, calendars, and books containing space exceeding eight pages for being written up (not being exercise books) (20); coal (21); and safety matches (excluding matches used as fire-works) (22); are subject only to the sales tax and *not* to the general sales tax.

The rate of the general sales tax is only one-fourth per cent., in the case of bullion and specie (23), and one per cent. in the

* When sold by dealers recognized for the purpose by the Collector of Sales Tax.

case of entries 1 and 2, i.e., raw cotton and cotton seeds, and only three pies in the rupee in the case of entries 3 to 8 and entry 24 [articles made of gold and silver (of fineness not less than 75 per cent.) not containing any precious stones, synthetic or artificial precious stones, or pearls, real, artificial or cultured]. In all other cases it is six pies in the rupee.

The sales tax, however, is graded from one-fourth per cent. in the case of bullion and specie (23) and articles made of gold and silver, etc. (24) to three pies in the rupee in the case of entries 19 to 22 and entry 80. On several items, which may be said to form middle-class requirements, the rate is six pies in the rupee and on several other entries, which may be classed as "luxuries" it is twelve pies in the rupee. A sales tax of fifteen pies in the rupee is imposed on goods mentioned in entry 79 [textile fabrics of any kind including saries, dhotis, sheets, chaddars, blankets and other similar articles (except (i) cloth woven on handlooms, (ii) coarse and medium cotton cloth woven in mills or on powerlooms, and (iii) tracing cloth) sold at a rate not less than Rs. 3 per yard].

Certain articles like photographic and other cameras and enlargers, lenses, paper, films and plates required for use therewith, X-ray apparatus and equipment and lifts whether operated by electricity or Hydrolic power, have been added to the list of luxury goods and made subject to Sales Tax at the rate of 12 pies in the rupee.

The scheme of the Act is such that the taxes leviable under it do not offend against Article 286 of the Constitution, which makes inter-State trade free, or hamper exports from the State to markets outside India. Suitable provisions have been made both in the Act and in the Rule framed under it to ensure that neither the sales tax nor the general tax has to be paid more than once on the same article even when it is manufactured or processed. Wholesale dealers, intermediaries between wholesalers and retailers, or commission agents will not generally pay any of these taxes and in cases where they have to pay, provision exists for arranging refund of these taxes to them. In cases where dealers carry on processing or manufacture of goods for sale, it has been provided in the Rules that the sales tax paid on the purchase of goods used as raw materials, processing materials, fuel, lubricants, containers or packing materials shall be set off from the sales tax pyable on the sale of the manufactured or processed goods.

For the purpose of the administration of the Sales Tax Act in the Kolhapur District, two Sales Tax Officers have been appointed for the Kolhapur District. They have under them 8 Sales Tax Inspectors. The headquarter of these Inspectors is at Kolhapur.

The Sales Tax Officers exercise the powers delegated to them under the Bombay Sales Tax Act and Rules for the general administration of the Act in their charge. They register and grant licences to the dealers who are liable for registration and

who are entitled to hold a licence under the provisions of the Act and are invested with powers to assess them. They receive periodical returns from the dealers who are registered showing the turnover during the period and the tax payable by them, and they verify the returns, pass orders of assessment and take steps for the recovery of the tax assessed. They also detect cases of evasion of tax and report them to the Collector of Sales Tax for necessary orders. They are primarily responsible for the general administration of the office.

The Additional Collector is, under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, an authority equivalent to the Collector of Sales Tax and appeals against the orders of Additional Collectors and Collector of Sales Tax would lie before the Sales Tax Tribunal. There is also provision for *suo motu* revision of orders passed by the Sales Tax Officers. The Assistant Collector of Sales Tax, can of his own motion revise any order passed by any Sales Tax Officer under his jurisdiction. Similarly the Additional Collector of Sales Tax or Collector of Sales Tax, as the case may be, can revise any order passed by the Assistant Collector of Sales Tax or Sales Tax Officer.

The officer next above the Sales Tax Officer, Kolhapur, is the Assistant Collector of Sales Tax of the Central Division, Range III, who has his headquarters at Poona. The Sales Tax Officer seeks clarification and advice from the Assistant Collector in certain matters relating to the administration of the Act. He has also to submit to the Assistant Collector all cases which he is not competent to deal with. Appeals lie from the orders of the Sales Tax Officer to the Assistant Collector, from the Assistant Collector to the Collector of Sales Tax, and from the Collector to the Sales Tax Tribunal.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE SALES TAX RECEIPTS AND COLLECTION CHARGES IN RESPECT OF KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

Year.	Sales Tax collected.	Collection Charges.	Proportion of collection charges to amount collected.
1949–50 ..	8,53,674	17,858	2·09
1950–51	18,60,146	28,749	1·54
1951–52	19,58,989	29,770	1·60
1952–53	15,57,750	36,265	2·32
1953–54	14,35,343	40,331	2·80
1954–55	20,52,627	39,051	1·90
1955–56	24,18,000	40,708	1·68
1956–57	25,59,592	46,653	1·82

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

The Registration Department.

REGISTRATION. Registration of Documents.

The Indian Registration Act was enacted to prevent execution of fraudulent and forged documents and thus save the illiterate public from possible exploitation by unscrupulous *sawakars* and greedy landlords. Accordingly, the Act has mainly provided for compulsory registration of all documents affecting immovable property of the value exceeding Rs. 100. Other documents affecting immovable property of a value below Rs. 100 (and their number is generally limited) and documents of adoptions and wills have been made optionally registrable thereunder. As a rule, fees are levied for registration, but as an encouragement to the co-operative movement, the State Government have exempted from payment of fees, documents relating to co-operative credit societies, land mortgage banks, urban banks (upto the value of Rs. 2,000) and housing societies (upto the value of Rs. 5,000). Similarly, awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XVIII of 1947) are also registered free. Marriages under the Parsi Marriages and Divorces Act (III of 1936), Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953 (Act V of 1954) and the Special Marriage Act, 1954 (Act XLIII of 1955) are also registered.

Registration Offices Pre and Post-Merger Working.

Kolhapur, a merged State district, first adopted the Indian Registration Act in 1875. Till the merger, the Registration Department was a part of the Revenue Department, a senior clerk of the department being appointed as a Sub-Registrar of each taluka and the two Prant Officers being ex-officio District Registrars. The Sarsubha used to be the Inspector General of Registration. After the merger, the entire registration administration was brought on the lines obtaining in the other districts of the State. Accordingly, the sub-districts were reorganised. At present there are eight registration offices located respectively at Karvir, Gadhinglaj, Radhanagari, Panhala, Kagal, Shirol, Hatkanangle and Chandgad. Each office is manned by a Sub-Registrar. The Sub-Registrars at Gadhinglaj and Radhanagari have also to pay periodical visits to Ajra and Gargoti respectively for the convenience of the public of these talukas. The Sub-Registrar, Karvir, in addition to the work of registration of documents helps the District Registrar in the registration administration of the district.

DISTRICT REGISTRAR.

The Collector of Kolhapur District is ex-officio District Registrar. The District Registrar exercises supervision over the entire registration staff of the district. Though the Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector General of Registration, the District Registrar is empowered to make temporary appointments of Sub-Registrars in local vacancies. He is mainly the appointing authority of Sub-Registry *karkuns* and peons in the district. The District Registrar carries out the instructions of the Inspector General of Registration in all departmental matters and keeps him fully informed about the registration

DISTRICT REGISTRAR.

system and its efficient working. The District Registrar attends to the needs and difficulties of the Sub-Registrars in their day to day work with the help of the Sub-Registrar at the head-quarters. He visits each Sub-Registry Office at the time of taluka office inspection and routine matters of the office are inspected by him with the help of the Collector's revenue branch which is on tour with him. The District Registrar is empowered to register any document from the district (section 30) and he also receives sealed covers containing wills for deposit in his safe (section 42). He hears appeals and applications under section 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act against the refusal orders passed by Sub-Registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct the documents concerned to be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. Similarly, he sanctions refunds in surcharges. The District Registrar is thus the executive officer under the Indian Registration Act, the Inspector General of Registration being mainly concerned with general supervision of the department.

SUB-REGISTRAR.

The Sub-Registrar is immediately subordinate to the District Registrar. The Sub-Registrar's chief function is to register documents presented for registration. Before accepting a document for registration he has to satisfy himself that stamps of the value prescribed under the Stamps Act are affixed to it and also levy the necessary registration fee. He keeps an authenticated record of each such document and intimates all changes under the registered deeds to the Mamlatdar or the City Survey Officer according as the property is agricultural or city surveyed. The registration records are considered as valuable public records and are to be preserved permanently. They are open to inspection by the public on payment of fees, and certified copies thereof can be granted to parties on payment of fees The Sub-Registrar is also assigned certain ex-officio duties. He is a Parsi Marriage Registrar and also a Registrar of Marriages under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953. The extent of this extra work is, however, limited. The Sub-Registrar of Kolhapur is in addition empowered to solemnize marriages under the Special Marriages Act, 1954. In certain cases Sub-Registrars are also Notaries Public under the Negotiable Instruments Act. The Sub-Registrar, Karvir, is a Notary Public for Kolhapur district.

Inspection.

The District of Kolhapur is in charge of the Inspector of Registration, Satara Division, Satara, for inspection work. His jurisdiction comprises of North Satara, South Satara, Kolhapur and Ratnagiri districts. He is subordinate to the District Registrar and the Inspector General of Registration and has no administrative functions. His duty is mainly confined to the inspection of the technical work of the registration offices

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SUB-REGISTRAR. Inspection.

including the Central Record Room at the headquarters and the record rooms of the taluka sub-registrars, so that those records which are in danger of being destroyed may be recopied and authenticated according to law. He also examines the various books, registers, indexes, accounts and other records in the sub-registries once a year and sends one copy of his inspection memo to the District Registrar and another to the Inspector General of Registration simultaneously forwarding a copy to the Sub-Registrar concerned. The Inspector General of Registration on receiving such memo, directs the Sub-Registrar concerned through the District Registrar to carry out such of the instructions proposed by the Inspector of Registration as are approved by him (i.e. the Inspector General).

Statistics.

The average annual income of the Kolhapur Registration District is Rs. 95,977 and the average annual expenditure Rs. 41,983 (based on the figures for the triennum 1953-55). Seven of the eight offices in the district are working under the manuscript system. Only in Karvir Sub-Registry Office the copying of documents is done by means of photography. During 1956 in all 11,788 documents were registered in the district, composed of 11,335 documents falling under compulsory registration and of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,89,03,789; 188 documents falling under optional registration and of the aggregate value of Rs. 2,24,539; 228 documents affecting moveable property and of the aggregate value of Rs. 21,230; and 37 wills. 1443 memoranda of marriages were registered under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act (V of 1954) and 2 marriages were solemnised under the Special Marriages Act, 1954.

THE STAMPS DEPARTMENT.

STAMPS. Organisation.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF STAMPS, Bombay is the authority who controls the supply and sale of State Stamps in the State, while in the Kolhapur district the Collector of Kolhapur as the administrative head, holds general charge of the Stamp Department. There is no officer in the district specially in charge of stamps. The work is done by the Stamps Head Karkun under the supervision of the Treasury Officer, Kolhapur, who is a gazetted Officer. The Treasury Officer has charge of the Local Depot at Kolhapur and is responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to branch depots and their sale to the public. He is empowered to grant refund of the value of unused, spoilt and obsolete stamps presented to him within the prescribed period. A branch depot is located at every taluka or mahal headquarter and it is in charge of the Sub-Treasury Officer, i.e., the Mamlatdar or Mahalkari. The Sub-Treasury Officers are also empowered to grant refund of stamps to a limited extent.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold not only at the local depot and the branch depots, but also at various other centres by vendors authorised by Government. There are 27 licensed stamp vendors in the district. Besides, the Stamps Head Karkun and the Nazir in the District Court, Kolhapur, have been appointed to work as ex-officio stamp vendors. Moreover, the Mamlatdars and Circle Officers, while on tour, are authorised to sell the villagers stamps of various denominations required by them.

The following table gives the total incomes realised from Stamps Duty in the Kolhapur district during the year 1949-50, 1950-51 and 1951-52 and the amounts paid to licensed stamp vendors during those years:—

	1949-50.	1950-51.	1951-52.	From 1-8-1949.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Total income realised from Stamp Duty:—				
Judicial Stamps ..	2,67,900	3,14,290	3,44,066	
Non-Judicial Stamps ..	1,90,112	2,77,043	3,24,642	
Discount paid to Stamp Vendors:—				
Judicial Stamps ..	6,732	1,797	2,050	
Non-Judicial Stamps ..	....	5,722	6,773	

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Tax and the Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act (XV of 1956), and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act (LXV of 1958). Under the first Act all motor vehicles have to be registered; all drivers have to take out a licence, which is given only on their passing a prescribed test of competence; the hours of work of drivers of transport vehicles are restricted; and third party insurance of all vehicles plying in public places has to be affected. It gives power to the State Governments to subject vehicles to strict mechanical tests and to control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, specifying their routes and also the freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and issue of licences and permits.

There is a State Transport Authority for each State and Regional Transport Authorities have been set up for convenient regions of a State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities of the regional transport authorities.

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MOTOR VEHICLES.

The Regional Transport Authority controls the motor transport in the region and deals with the issue of permits to different categories of transport vehicles according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, taking departmental action against those permit-holders who contravene any condition of the permit, etc., and prescribing policy in certain important matters relating to motor transport in the region.

Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Authority for Poona Region with head-quarters at Poona, has jurisdiction over the Kolhapur district and also over the districts of Poona, North Satara, South Satara, Sholapur and Ahmednagar. It consists of four official and six non-official members nominated by Government under sub-section *(1)* of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

Regional Transport Officer.

The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer he is the authority for licensing drivers and registering vehicles and also for prosecuting in cases of offences committed under the Motor Vehicles Act. Acting under the authority of the Regional Transport Authority, he is responsible for all the duties connected with the issue and counter-signature of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences and with the grant, revocation, suspension and cancellation of permits for public carriers, private carriers, stage carriages and taxi cabs.

Other staff.

One Assistant Regional Transport Officer and one Supervisor assist the Regional Transport Officer at headquarters. Nine Motor Vehicles Inspectors look after the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, testing of motor drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. They are assisted by four Assistant Motor Vehicle Inspectors in these duties. One Motor Vehicles Prosecutor looks after the prosecution work and conducts cases launched in courts of law. He also assists the Regional Transport Officer by giving legal opinion whenever need arises.

This Department has liaison with the Police Department. The Police Department carries out periodical checks of motor vehicles and detects offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to references from the Motor Vehicles Department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicle authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of non-use of vehicles and recoveries of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc.

The District Magistrate comes into relation with this department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits, and location of motor stands.

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MOTOR VEHICLES.
Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designed and used solely for carrying out agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are based on the types of vehicles (e.g., motor cycles, tricycles, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.), and their laden or unladen weight. The Act has removed all municipal and State tolls on motor vehicles. The Rules made under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (i.e. the Regional Transport Officer) shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (e.g. the make of the vehicle, its capacity, etc.), and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax determined, stating the limits within which he intends to use the vehicles, i.e., whether only within the limits of a particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State. A token for the payment of the tax will be issued by the registering authority and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use in a public place. A fresh declaration has to be made annually, or every time the tax has to be paid (i.e. quarterly, half-yearly or annually). The registering authority before issuing the token in respect of the payment of the tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid.

It may be mentioned here that with a view to facilitating the convenience of the motoring public and for the purposes of smooth administration of Motor Vehicles Department an office of the Assistant Regional Transport Officer has been established at Kolhapur with effect from 1st June 1957 with one Assistant Regional Transport Officer, two Motor Vehicles Inspectors and two Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors.

CHAPTER 16—DEVELOPMENTAL DEPARTMENTS.

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.
AGRICULTURE.
Organisation.

THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

THE DIRECTOR OF AGRICULTURE IS THE HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, who is assisted by two Joint Directors, four Deputy Directors, at headquarters, each in charge of (1) research and education, (2) intensive cultivation, (3) agricultural extension, and (4) agricultural engineering and soil conservation. One Deputy Director of Agriculture for crop research, with his headquarters at Poona for the whole State, working under the Director of Agriculture, concerns himself with the technical side of crop research in the State. The Divisional Deputy Directors are in charge of extension work in their respective divisions and the District Agricultural Officers of the respective districts are in turn responsible for all extension work in their districts.

The work carried out by the Department of Agriculture in the Kolhapur district may be grouped under the following items: —

(a) Agricultural Extension and demonstrations.

(b) Agricultural Engineering including Mechanical Cultivation and Soil Conservation.

(c) Animal and Poultry Husbandry.

(d) Agricultural Research and Education.

Agricultural Extension and Demonstration.

Agricultural Extension and Demonstrations.—The officer in-charge of extension work in the district is the District Agricultural Officer, who is responsible to the Divisional Deputy Directors. The District Agricultural Officer is assisted by one Assistant District Agricultural Officer at his headquarters and two Agricultural Officers—one for the North Division and the other for the South Division of the district. Six of the nine talukas and two of the three mahals of the district are divided into 29 circles, each taluka or mahal having three or four circles and there is one Agricultural Assistant in-charge of each circle. In the remaining three talukas and one mahal, independent National Extension Service Blocks having been formed, the department's Agricultural Assistants have been withdrawn and work at village level is being looked after by Gramsevaks who are trained in agriculture, and by Agricultural Officers attached to each Block at the Block Level.

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CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. AGRICULTURE. Agricultural Extension and Demonstration.

The District Agricultural Officer is responsible for all extension work in the district. The following are the important extension activities of the district :—

(1) Execution of all "Grow More Food" schemes.

(2) Establishment of agricultural demonstration centres on cultivators fields and holding field demonstrations in respect of various improvements.

(3) Extension of intensive cultivation of paddy by the Japanese method and organisation of demonstration plots.

(4) Organisation of demonstration plots showing various cultural, manurial and other improvements.

(5) Organisation of agricultural and cattle shows in the district.

(6) Organisation of crop protection services.

(7) To help and guide all National Extension Service Blocks in planning of agricultural extension programme in their respective blocks.

(8) Organisation of crop competitions of various crops to encourage the cultivators to maximise their production per acre.

(9) Supervision of crop-cutting experiments.

(10) Extension of sugarcane development scheme.

(11) Organisation of special weeks such as Vana Mahotsava Saptah, Gram Sudhar Saptah, Fertilizers Week, and Crop Competition Fortnight.

(12) Extension of horticultural, vegetable and kitchen gardening.

Each circle of a taluka or mahal has a depot wherein improved seeds, insecticides and fungicides are stocked for sale to needy cultivators. Dust guns, spray pumps and improved implements are also stocked for the use of cultivators on nominal hire charges. Agricultural extension work is carried on in each circle by the Agricultural Assistant, who is supervised by the Agricultural Officer of the division concerned.

The distribution of fertilizers is done through co-operative bodies and individual traders.

Mechanical Cultivation.

Mechanical Cultivation.—There is one Bulldozing Unit, with four bulldozers, in charge of a Foreman Supervisor who works under the control of the Mechanical Cultivation Engineer to Government. The bulldozing programme, however, is chalked out by the District Agricultural Officer, and the work is undertaken according to that programme. Bulldozers are sent wherever there is concentration of work in a compact block,

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AGRICULTURE.

Mechanical Cultivation.

the minimum required being at least 70 hours of work for each bulldozer in the first instance. All charges for bulldozing are required to be credited in advance to the District Agricultural Officer, and on receipt of advances necessary job orders are issued to the Foreman Supervisor for executing the work. The charges for bulldozing work are as under :—

40 H. P.	...	Rs. 25 per hour.
80 H. P.	..	Rs. 40 per hour.

Soil Conservation.

Soil Conservation.—The Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Miraj, is in-charge of soil conservation work in Kolhapur district. Soil conservation work has been started in a few villages of the eastern portion of the district. Bulldozers are also utilised for soil conservation work wherever necessary.

The soil conservation works are executed by the soil conservation staff after obtaining the written consent of 67 per cent. of the land owners of the villages for which soil conservation schemes are approved by the Land Improvement Board of the district. The total cost of the work is met by Government in the first instance, and 50 per cent. of the cost of the work or Rs. 10 per acre, whichever is less, is considered as subsidy from Government and the remaining amount is recovered from the land owners concerned in 15 equal annual instalments (free of interest) commencing one year after the date of completion.

Boring.

Boring Machines.—The two boring machines belonging to the Agricultural Department are handed over to the District Local Board for execution of boring work in the district.

Water-finding

Water-finding Machine.—One water-finding machine has been allotted to this district. The charges for the water-finding machine are Rs. 10 for agricultural purposes and Rs. 20 for non-agricultural purposes.

Animal Husbandry.

Animal Husbandry.—Live-stock (Cattle) improvement work is undertaken in the district by the District Agricultural Officer under the guidance of the Live-stock Expert to Government. Premium bulls and premium cows are located in the villages for improvement of cattle by the grading system. For this purpose intensive cattle improvement zones are selected and improvement work is undertaken in these areas. Pure breed animals are tattooed and registered in the herd-stock.

The *Khillar* breed of cattle is very popular in this district. especially in the eastern and central parts. In the western part, which is rather hilly and has heavy rainfall, the Dangi breed is recommended.

Artificial insemination work has been undertaken by the Animal Husbandry Department at Kolhapur very recently and it is getting popular.

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AGRICULTURE.

Poultry Development.

Poultry Development.—Poultry development work is undertaken in the district under the guidance of the Poultry Development Officer, Poona. Improved birds and hatching eggs are supplied to deserving poultry keepers at concessional rates. There is also a poultry farm at Kolhapur and it is to be developed into a technical institution for training students in poultry husbandry. The farm is now only engaged in maintaining different birds and supply of pure birds and hatching eggs to cultivators.[1]

Research and Education.

Research and Education.—Agricultural research is done in this district mainly on paddy and sugarcane crops, which are the main crops of the district.

The Agricultural Research Station (Sugarcane) in the district is in charge of an Agricultural Officer who is working under the Sugarcane Specialist, Padegaon, and is located at Rajputwadi—four miles from Kolhapur on the Kolhapur-Ratnagiri Road. This is a sub-station under the Sugarcane Specialist, Padegaon, started in the year, 1950, to carry out research on manurial and cultural practices of sugarcane and to help in increasing the yield. The area of the farm is 21 acres and is taken on lease from the Kolhapur Sugar Mills. The present area of the farm is very small and it is, therefore, difficult to carry out experiments on a large scale.

One permanent Sugarcane Research Station with laboratory facilities has been sanctioned for Kolhapur in the Second Five-Year Plan and it is to be placed in charge of a Class II Officer. The work of acquiring land on the Kolhapur-Poona road for this Research Station has been taken up with the Revenue department.

At present Co. 419 is popularly grown in the district on more than 95 per cent. of the area. New promising strains evolved are Co. 740 and Co. 775. Co. 775 is good both in regard to yields and sugar recovery and is getting popular with cultivators.

The sugarcane development work has been going on in the district since 1954 and an area of 15,000 acres covering areas of Kolhapur and South Satara districts has been selected for carrying out sugarcane development work. The scheme is in charge of an Agricultural Officer with his headquarters at Kolhapur, working under the Sugarcane Specialist, and the Agricultural Officer is assisted by four Agricultural Assistants.

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[1] All sheep, poultry and animal husbandry works have been transferred to the Director of Animal Husbandry, Bombay State, Poona 1, on 1st July, 1957 as per Government Resolution, Agriculture and Forests Department, No. LVS-1056-D, dated the 28th June 1957. Transfer of extension work in animal husbandry and poultry etc. at the district level is, however, not done and is still looked after by the District Agricultural Officer.

of which three are located in the Kolhapur district and one in the South Satara district. The main activities undertaken in the Scheme are control of pest and diseases, propaganda for departmental schedule of manuring, maintenance of seed nurseries, use of improved implements, competition for highest production of *gul*, advice to cultivators in respect of preparation of *gul* and improved furnaces, manurial trials, etc.

The Agricultural Research Station (Paddy) in the district is in charge of an Agricultural Officer who works directly under the Deputy Director of Agriculture Crop Research, Poona. The station is located at Radhanagari. The area of the farm is about five acres. As the latter is very inadequate, the work of acquiring additional lands is in progress (1957).

The object of the Research Station is to evolve suitable strains of paddy, both for drilled and for transplanted tracts.

Government Orchard at Ajra.—This is in charge of an Agricultural Officer working under the Horticulturist to Government, Poona. The Horticultural Section has taken over possession of mango gardens of the old State and the work of improvement of the gardens is in progress. A horticultural nursery has been established, and grafts of various fruit trees are supplied to cultivators.

Agricultural Education.

Agricultural Education.—There are two institutions connected with agricultural education in Kolhapur district:—

(1) The Shahu Agricultural School, Bavada.

(2) The Extension Training Centre, Bavada.

The Shahu Agricultural School, with an agricultural farm of 65 acres 34 gunthas attached to it, is located in Kasba-Bavada, three miles away from Kolhapur town. The school is in charge of a Superintendent who is in Maharashtra Agricultural Service, Class II, and is assisted by an Agricultural Officer and Agricultural Assistants. Annually 30 students selected by a Committee are admitted to the school. Each student gets a stipend of Rs. 20 per mensem, and two sets of *Khaki* uniform during the period of training.

With a view to making an adequate number of trained Gram Sevaks available, the Agricultural school is being utilised in 1956-57 for giving training in basic agriculture for the Gram Sevaks selected by the Divisional Officer. These Sevaks will undergo further training for six months in the Extension Training Centre. The Extension Training Centre was

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established at Kasba-Bavada, a suburb of Kolhapur, in 1956, in pursuance of the Second Five-Year Plan to meet the increased demand for trained personnel under the National Extension Scheme. The Agricultural School has been integrated with it. The centre admits annually about 130 trainees. The trainees are of two types, viz., direct recruits selected by a committee and also in-service personnel from Revenue, Agricultural and Co-operative departments. Two courses are given at the Extension Training Centre, one is for trainees who have successfully passed either the two year agricultural course or the S. S. C. Examination with Agriculture as a subject. These are given a six months course. The other is for those who have not undergone any training in Agriculture. They are given a one-year course. The six month course usually commences on the 16th April and the 16th October. The one year course commences from the 16th April every year. A stipend of Rs. 50 per mensem is given to direct recruits admitted to the centre and a stipend of Rs. 25 per mensem to men of service personnel of Agricultural, Co-operative and Revenue departments admitted at the centre.

The staff at the Extension Training Centre consists of one Maharashtra Agricultural Service, Class I Officer as Principal, three lecturers in Co-operation, Education and Public Health in Class II, and one lecturer in revenue matters (2nd grade Mamlatdar) and one Veterinary Officer from the Veterinary department and one Officer of the Subordinate Agricultural Service, I grade, and one officer of the Subordinate Agricultural Service, II grade.

CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

THE CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.*

Functions.

THE MAIN FUNCTIONS OF THE VETERINARY DEPARTMENT are treatment of sick animals, control of cattle, cattle epidemics and castrations. The department conducts the work of control and destruction of ticks. advises people in the hygenic methods of animal management and participates in the various cattle fairs and shows held at various places in the State by opening veterinary stalls, etc., for propaganda.

Activities in the District.

Kolhapur District.—The veterinary activities in Kolhapur district are controlled by the Divisional Veterinary Officer, Kolhapur who was also in charge of Belgaum district till the States were reorganised. The Divisional Veterinary Officer is directly responsible and subordinate to the Director of Veterinary Services, Maharashtra State, Poona.

* Since 1957, the Civil Veterinary Department is renamed as the Animal Husbandry Department.

Veterinary Dispensaries.

In Kolhapur district there are eight full-fledged veterinary dispensaries, 13 branch veterinary dispensaries and four veterinary aid centres which are located at the following places: —

Full-fledged Veterinary Dispensaries. 1	Branch Veterinary Dispensaries. 2	Veterinary Aid Centres. 3
(1) Kolhapur.	(1) Ajra.	(1) Beed.
(2) Bambavade.	(2) Kagal.	(2) Sangawade.
(3) Sarawade.	(3) Nesari.	(3) Bajarbhogaon.
(4) Gadhinglaj.	(4) Hamidwada.	(4) Kotoli.
(5) Chandgad.	(5) Ghotawade.	
(6) Gargoti.	(6) Hatkanangale.	
(7) Jaisingpur.	(7) Ichalkaranji.	
(8) Bavada.	(8) Vadgaon.	
	(9) Kadgaon.	
	(10) Ispurli.	
	(11) Kale.	
	(12) Malkapur.	
	(13) Kodoli.	

All these dispensaries are maintained by Government. Full-fledged veterinary dispensaries (except Bavada) are in charge of veterinary officers who are veterinary graduates. The branch veterinary dispensaries and veterinary aid centres are in charge of stockmen.

There are two to three fixed centres under the jurisdiction of each dispensary and aid centre which are periodically visited by the veterinary officers and the stockmen for treating local animals, castration etc.

Statistics of Diseases. Inoculations and Vaccinations.

In 1956-57, the following outbreak of diseases were reported, attended and confirmed in the district of Kolhapur: —

Name of the disease.	Reported.	Attended.	Confirmed.
Haemorrhagic Septicaemia ..	231	231	11
Black Quarter ..	146	146	11
Foot and Mouth Disease ..	167	167	167
Anthrax	8	8	..
Ranikhet	23	23	18
Fowl Pox ..	2	2	2

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In 1956-57, 1,13,423 vaccinations and inoculations were carried out in actual outbreak of various diseases of animals by the veterinary officers and stockmen in Kolhapur district. In addition to this, 1,22,060 animals and fowls were protected in clean areas as a preventive measure. The veterinary staff treated 40,720 out-patients and 42 in-patients and 4,066 castrations were performed both on tour and at headquarters during 1956-57. Apart from this, 31,871 cases were supplied with medicines. The veterinary staff in the district of Kolhapur in 1956-57 treated 3,487 animals for contagious diseases and 27,237 animals for non-contagious diseases. The work of eradication of ticks was done by veterinary officers and stockmen. In all 47,804 animals were sprayed with Gammexane powder in 1956-57.

In 1956-57, three cattle shows were held in Kolhapur district which were attended by the veterinary officers. They had veterinary stalls in the shows.

THE FOREST DEPARTMENT.

FOREST. Organisation.

THE HEAD OF THE FOREST DEPARTMENT OF THE STATE is the Chief Conservator of Forests, whose headquarters is at Poona. The whole State is divided into five territorial Circles for administrative purposes, and at the head of each Circle is a Conservator of Forests.

The territorial Conservators have Divisional Forest Officers under them to look after the administration of divisions which are the Sub-Divisions of a Circle. These Divisional Forest Officers belong to the Maharashtra Forest Service, Class I. Each division is divided into small executive parts called "Ranges" and each range is managed by a Range Forest Officer under the direct control of the Divisional Forest Officer. The Range Forest Officer is a non-gazetted subordinate of Class III, who is usually trained at the Forest Colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore. Each range is sub-divided into "Rounds" and each round is managed by a Round Officer (or Forester), who is usually trained at the Forest Schools in the State. Finally, each round is sub-divided into 'Beats', and each beat is managed by a beat guard (or Forest Guard).

The Kolhapur Division which includes the Kolhapur district falls in Poona Circle and is held by the Divisional Forest Officer, Kolhapur. It comprises the former Kolhapur State area together with the feudatory Jahagirs and areas of Chandgad taluka of Belgaum district transferred to Kolhapur district, consequent to organisation of States. There are seven Range Forest Officers each in charge of a Range,

with their headquarters as shown below. In addition, there are two independent Rounds directly under the Divisional Forest Officer, Kolhapur: —

Name of the Range.	Headquarters.
1. Karvir	Kolhapur.
2. Panhala	Panhala.
3. Bhudargad	Gargoti.
4. Vishalgad	Malkapur.
5. Ajra	Ajra.
6. Radhanagari	Radhanagari.
7. Bavada	Gaganbawada.

Under these seven Range Forest Officers there are 24 Round Officers (or Foresters) and 146 Beat Guards (or Forest Guards).

The two Independent Round Foresters have their headquarters at Chandgad and Patne.

The Revenue and Forest departments are closely inter-connected in their work at a number of points. Deforestation. afforestation, rights and privileges, fixing of permit rates for minor forest produce, recovery of forest dues under Sections 82 and 85 of the Indian Forest Act, etc. Working plans (described later) for the management and development of forests are prepared solely by the Forest Department, but in so far as prescriptions of a working plan affect local supply and the rights and privileges of the inhabitants of the tract, the approval of the Collector has to be obtained before it is submitted to Government by the Chief Conservator for sanction.

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the protection, exploitation and regeneration of the forests according to sanctioned working plans and other orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts , supplies material to departments and the public, realises revenue and controls expenditure. He deals finally with forest offences, having power to compound the same. In short, he is responsible for forest administration and management in all matters relating to technical forest operations. However in regard to the subjects mentioned in the previous paragraph, the Divisional Forest Officer shall issue orders in consultation with and approval of the Collector. The Divisional Forest Officer is also expected to advise and give his opinion relating to all questions of technical nature in forestry, that may be referred to him by the Collector of the district.

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Organisation.

The Assistant Conservator or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer assists the Divisional Forest Officer in the work of inspection and supervision. He has the same powers as the Divisional Forest Officer, except in matters of accounts. No such post exists at present (1957) in the Kolhapur Forest Division.

The Range Forest Officer is in executive charge of his range. He is responsible for carrying out, with the help of his round officers and beat guards, and according to the orders of the Divisional Forest Officer, all works in his charge, such as the marking, reservation, girdling and felling of trees; the transport of timber, fuel, etc., to the sale depots; sowing, planting, tending and other silvicultural operations; construction of roads, buildings and wells; protection of forests and investigation of forest offences; supervision over removal of forest produce by purchasers and by holders of rights and privileges; and issue of passes and permits.

The Foresters' duties include protection of forests; detection and investigation of offences; issue of transit and other passes; collection of revenue from permits and compensation of offences; reservation of standard (i.e. the number and kind of trees prescribed for preservation and the manner of cutting, etc.) in coupes given out to contractors for cutting; inspection and protection of forests; and guidance and supervision of forest guards.

The Forest Guard's functions are to patrol and protect all forests in his beat; repair and maintain forest boundary marks; execute silvicultural works, viz., sowing, planting and creeper-cutting; and detect forest offences.

Classification of Forests: Working Plans.

Under the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927) forests are divided into two main classes: 'Reserved' and 'Protected'. Before forests are classified, they have to be subjected to regular settlement by a forest settlement officer, who enquires into the existence of all public and private rights. In the case of reserved forests, the existing rights are either settled, transferred or commuted. In the case of protected forests, the rights are simply recorded and regulated. The forest areas of the Kolhapur Division are as under:—

Class of forests.	Areas.			Sq. Miles.
	Acres.	Gunthas.	Bighas.	
(1) Reserved forests ..	2,96,919	31	6	463·93
(2) Protected forests ...	18,334	14	0	129·27
(3) Leased forests ..	3,550	2	0	5·23
(4) Unclassed forests ..	369	4	0	0·58

Classification of Forests: Working Plans.

All reserved forests in-charge of the Forest department are managed according to the prescriptions of "Working plans". A working plan is a document which lays down the detail of scientific management of a forest for a prescribed number of years. Before a working plan is drawn-up, survey is made of the growing stock, at times by actual examination, and an analysis is made of the stems of standing trees to determine the rate of growth of the principal species with special reference to the soil and the climatic conditions of each locality. On the basis of the data thus collected, plans are drawn-up for felling, regeneration, silvicultural treatment and protection of forests with provision for the due exercise of the rights and privileges of the people, including grazing of cattle. With a view to ensuring a sustained supply of forest produce exploitation is regulated as far as possible keeping the capital intact (growing stock). The preparation of working plans is done by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Poona.

Functions of the Department.

The main functions of the Territorial Forest Division may be classed as under:—(1) regeneration and maintenance; (2) systems of management; (3) exploitation.

(1) Regeneration and Maintenance.

As an area is cut and tree growth removed, it is regenerated with fresh crop. This is the principal duty of a Forest Officer, since the basic principle of forest management, viz., sustained supply of forest products in perpetuity to the posterity, or removal of interest from mature crop leaving the forest capital intact for future generations, will entirely depend on the success of the regeneration work. Great care and precaution are required against damages by men, animals and plants, and against adverse climatic influences and other inanimate agencies. Damage by men is caused by (1) lighting of fires; (2) encroachments; (3) faulty exploitation methods; and (4) misuse of forest rights and privileges. Though occasionally forest fires may originate in natural causes, in the vast majority of cases they are due to human action, either within or without the forest. The most frequent cause is carelessness or recklessness, and sometimes illicit shikar but occasionally there is incendiarism. To prevent damage by fire, the whole-hearted support and co-operation of the public is required. This co-operation is secured through the authority and influence of the village headmen. Precautionary measures like fire-tracing and early burning are also taken by the department in good times against accidental fires. Clearing of shruby growth along the roads and paths is also done to avert any fire spreading in the forest. Rigid patrolling and vigilant watch against unauthorised felling and removal of forest produce by the villagers are resorted to. Offenders in respect of unauthorized grazing and protection from cattle are dealt with severely under

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. FOREST. Functions of the Department. (1) *Regeneration and Maintenance.*

the Forest Act and other laws. The total number of forest offences registered during the year 1956-57 is given below:—

Nature of offence.	Number of offences.
(1) Injury to forest by fire	50
(2) Unauthorized felling and removal of forest produce	438
(3) Unauthorised grazing	63
(4) Miscellaneous	314
Total ...	865

(2) *System of Management and Working Circles.*

The working plan for Kolhapur Division has been recently revised and rewritten by the Divisional Forest Officer. As per prescriptions of working plan, different silvicultural systems of management have been prescribed for different working circles:—

(*i*) *Protection Working Circle.*—Most of the hilly and steep area from the Western Ghats, which form the catchment area of important rivers are included in this working circle. With a view to protect the catchment area from heavy soil erosion, no exploitation is prescribed except that a Twenty-Year Regeneration Programme of Blanks is prescribed.

(*ii*) *Fuel Working Circle.*—The method of treatment suggested is "Light Improvement Fellings and Thinnings" coupled with artificial regeneration in patches with suitable fuel species. Tending operations such as weedings, cleanings and thinnings are undertaken by the department in coupes under prescriptions of the working plan.

(*iii*) *Conversion Working Circle.*—The system prescribed is of clear felling with reserves to be followed by artificial regeneration. The treatment will consist of gradual removal and replacement of present crop by one of more valuable and economically important species.

(*iv*) *Teak Improvement Working Circle.*—A system of modified clear felling in mature and deteriorated wood, with regeneration under a short rotation of 40 years is prescribed.

(*v*) *Sandalwood Working Circle.*—The method of treatment prescribed is "Improvement Fellings" in unsound stock combined with operations tending to give better growth conditions to the live and immature stock aided by artificial regeneration to replace the mature stuff removed.

(*vi*) *Kuran Working Circle.*—Development of fodder areas by improving conditions of soil and moisture, periodical closure by permitting cutting of grass only and reintroduction of fodder tree species.

(2) *System of Management and Working Circles.*

(vii) *Pasture Working Circle.*—Development of pasture lands by introduction of rotational grazing schemes is envisaged here. In addition, in the closed ranch, the land improvement programme coupled with planting of fodder tree species is also prescribed.

(viii) *Minor Forest Produce Working Circle.*—This is an overlopping working circle. Systematic exploitation of minor forest produce like *hirda, shikekai, bamboos,* etc., is prescribed together with a programme of their propagation and tending.

(3) *Exploitation.*

Forest products are divided into two main classes, major and minor. Major forest products comprise mainly wood, i.e., timber and fuel. All coupes due for working are advertised and sold annually either by tenders or by public auction. Penalties for breach of the contract terms as stipulated in the agreement are inflicted upon the defaulters. Normally exploitation is done by consumers and purchasers. Minor Forest produce in Kolhapur District are *hirda, shikekai, grass, apta leaves, karanj-seed, sawar-cotton, watsol* and *amsol,* etc. They are farmed out on a tenure of one year, three years or upto five years. *Hirda* is the chief commodity of minor forest products and the monopoly for collection of *Hirda* in the division has been given to Messrs. Amba Tannin and Pharmaceuticals Ltd., Kolhapur, at a royalty of Rs. 4-8-0 per ton on 10 years lease. The company have their factory at Amba, where *hirda* fruit is processed into solid tannin extract, which earns valuable foreign exchange. The company proposes to erect a powder plant next year, with a view to manufacturing "powdered tannin extract", which is in great demand in the foreign markets. The annual income from major forest products in 1956-57 was Rs. 65,759 for timber, Rs. 90,403 for fuel and Rs. 9,910-10-0 from sandalwood. The income from minor forest products during the same year was: bamboos: Rs. 156-10-0; grass and grazing. Rs. 13,302-10-0 and other minor forest products: Rs. 21,869-14-3. Thus the total income from all the forests in 1956-57 was Rs 2,89,615.

Working Plans.

Working Plans.—A consolidated revised working plan for the forests of former Kolhapur State together with the feudatory Jahagirs was drawn up by the Divisional Forest Officer. The plan has been submitted to Government and is expected to be introduced shortly. The defects in the former plans have been eliminated and a regular attempt has been made to work the forests on a sustained yield principle in perpetuity, by providing a regular programme of artificial regeneration in the revised plan. Thus considerable progress has been made in trying to bring the management of the forests on a scientific footing, and on a sustained yield principle, taking into consideration the important objects of management such as conservation of soil and moisture, protection and reboisement of catchment areas with a view to ensuring perennial supply of water in wells, springs and in rivers both for irrigation and

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hydro-electric purposes and to prevent occurrence of floods, in addition, the needs of the local population, in respect of fodder for their cattle, firewood for burning with a view to diverting cow-dung from the hearth into the fields, timber for agricultural implements and constructional purposes and also the needs of wood based industries such a matchwood industry and tanning industry, etc. have also been adequately provided for.

Forest Settlement.

Forest Settlement.—During the ex-State regime, the forests were, no doubt, named reserved and protected forests but the detailed forest settlement procedure which is required to be followed in order to constitute legally an area into reserved or protected forests was not followed. To obviate this legal anomally, the post of a Forest Settlement Officer was created in 1954-55. So far (1956) the forest settlement reports in respect of Shirol, Hatkanangale, Panhala, Bawada and Ajra have been completed and submitted to Government. The settlement work of forests of Kolhapur district is expected to be completed by the middle of 1957.

Vanamahotsava and Fruit Tree Planting.

Vanamahotsava and Fruit Tree Planting.—*Vanamahotsava* or the festival of trees, which was first conceived by Shri K. M. Munshi and given the status of a national festival is being observed every year with great fervour and enthusiasm. It has helped in impressing upon every individual the importance of forests to the nation, its varied uses and the urgent necessity of not only preserving the existing forests but also of expanding it by afforesting every bit of available land. Forest officers have played a significant part both by example and by precept, in the successful celebration of *Vanamahotsava*. The Kolhapur Forest Division has been supplying over 1½ lakhs of seed and seedlings to Kolhapur district.

With a view to encouraging private individuals to take up fruit tree planting, special *sanads* for planting fruit trees are granted. The *kaju* fruit plantation raised in about eight acres from Tarale Protected Forest area has been a remarkable success. Prizes given to the successful planters serve as incentives.

Co-operation in Forestry.

Co-operation in Forestry.—The introduction of the forest labourers co-operative societies is a unique achievement of the Government. This system has eradicated the ruthless exploitation of the *Adivasis* and other forest labourers by the forest contractors and has greatly improved their living conditions. In short, the introduction of co-operation in forestry has brought about a great social change amongst the most backward and uncivilized section of the population.

There are in all five forest labourers co-operative societies, to whom coupes have been alloted in this Division. All the societies are working satisfactorily and their financial position has considerably improved.

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Wild Life Preservation.

Wild Life Preservation.—In general, there is very little appreciation about the importance of wild life amongst the common man. With a view to making this subject popular and securing the co-operation of the public in preservation of wild life, Wild Life Preservation Week is being observed throughout India, since last year. The celebration of Wild Life Week has helped a good deal in inculcating popular interest in this subject, especially amongst the younger generations.

With a view to putting a stop to indiscriminate shooting and poaching, and to give adequate protection to wild life which is almost on the verge of extinction, the Bombay Government passed the Bombay Wild Animals and Wild Birds Protection Act, 1951. This Act is being administered by the Wild Life Preservation Officer, Poona, with the co-operation of the State Forest Department, Police department and the Revenue department. Though shooting of wild life without the requisite game licence is an offence under the Act, yet adequate provisions has been made to shoot wild life either in self-defence or when it becomes a menace to the public.

In keeping with the progressive policy of Government it is proposed to create a Game Sanctuary in Radhanagari, forest area. A comprehensive scheme for the sanctuary has been drawn up and submitted to Government.

Schemes under Second Five Year Plan.

(i) *Panhala Afforestation Scheme*.—Main object of this scheme is to improve the scenic and aesthetic beauty of Panhala Hill Station and to improve the climatic conditions of the place and to make it an ideal hill station, a health resort and a picnic centre. It is proposed to afforest an area of 324 acres, 8 gunthas at a total cost of Rs. 10,227. The scheme is progressing well (1956-57) as per scheduled programme and has been a success, despite the initial setback due to want of co-operation from the local population.

(ii) *Establishment of Wet Nurseries*.—This scheme contemplates establishment of wet nurseries for providing robust seedlings for transplanting and stump planting in exploited coupes, afforestation schemes, and also for *Vanamahotsava* purposes. Two wet nurseries have been started in the Division, one at Panhala and the other in Radhanagari Range. Nurseries in other ranges will be established during the remaining period of the Second Five Year Plan.

(iii) *Soil Conservation Demonstration Centre*.—With a view to demonstrating to the public the importance of soil and moisture conservation and afforestation works, a demonstration plot has been opened over an area of 100 acres in Padali village.

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. FOREST. Schemes under Second Five Year Plan.

(iv) *Scheme for raising Agave Plantations*.—This scheme is formulated to raise live hedges of *Agave* with the following objects:—

(1) To develop the potential source of raw material for cottage industry of rope making.

(2) To augment forest conservancy by keeping down fires and preventing cattle from encroaching upon closed area.

(3) To define boundaries of *kurans* and pasture lands for enforcing rotational grazing.

(4) To prevent soil erosion, 125 miles of forest boundary in this Division will be planted with the live hedge of *Agave* during Second Five-Year Plan, at a rate of 25 miles per year and at a cost of Rs. 200 per mile.

(v) *Rehabilitation of Pasture Lands—Wire Fencing scheme to Grass Kurans*.—It is a universally acknowledged fact that closure of grass *kuran* helps to improve the quality and to increase the quantity of grass, which could be recovered on cutting terms. To bring home the advantages of closure and subsequent increase of fodder, a scheme for wire fencing of important grass *kurans* in this Division has been drawn up. It is proposed to take up four *kurans* for wire fencing under this scheme.

Construction of Buildings.—With a view to provide forest subordinates with housing accommodation, it is proposed to construct seven quarters as per standard P. W. D. design, during the plan period.

Agri-silviculture.

Agrisilviculture.—Grants of blank areas in reserved forests are made on "agrisilvi" conditions on temporary tenure. Under this system villagers are encouraged to produce food crops along with plantation of tree species. In granting lands for cultivation under this system, preference is given first to landless agriculturists of the locality; secondly, to local agriculturists who do not possess an economic holding; and then to needy agriculturists of neighbouring villages. This method is found to be very useful in regenerating exploited coupes, at no cost to Government. However, care should be exercised in selection of good and reliable lessees, who would take care of the young plantation. In Chandgad taluka of this Division, this system has been successfully employed in raising good agrisilvi plantation in exploited coupes.

Relations with public.

The forest settlement of Kolhapur district is still in progress and the rights of the public have yet to be finally settled However the following general privileges are sanctioned for this district by Government:—

(1) No one will be prohibited from drawing water obtainable in forest in cases where it is not procurable elsewhere within a reasonable distance.

(2) (*a*) No charge will be made under section 55, Land Revenue Code, for the provision of water for agricultural purposes from any stream, budki, bandhara, tank and all natural sources of water in forest areas on which no expenditure has been incurred by Government at any time.

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(*b*) No fee will be levied when permission is granted for digging wells or channels in forest areas for agricultural purposes.

(*c*) Permission will be given freely for the clearance of choked up tanks and channels and for the removal of any forest growth obstructing the flow of water.

(3) Villagers having right of way to water through forest are entitled to a path 50 feet wide which they will be allowed to fence with thorns obtainable free of charge on application to the Divisional Forest Officer concerned. The villagers are also allowed to keep such paths free of all undergrowth.

(4) Free grazing in open forests under passes issued by the Revenue department, for village cattle (including sheep and goats where permitted) of forest and non-forest villages and non-village cattle, i.e., both cattle of professional graziers and cattle which do not remain in one village. This concession is subject to restrictions as regards admission as laid down in the grazing rules in force. (Cattle of other Provinces and Indian States are not entitled to this concession and will have to pay the fees prescribed in the grazing rules if admitted to graze in the forests of Maharashtra).

(5) No forest will be closed to grazing within a quarter of a mile of village site.

(6) Access to the grazing areas in the interior will be granted by the allotment of sufficiently wide short-cut approach roads. The short-cut cattle paths leading through closed forest to open forest will be marked by the Forest department in order to facilitate fencing by the villagers in the manner indicated in paragraph (3) above.

(7) Removal of stones and earth, from places approved by the Divisional Forest Officer, for the gatherer's own domestic or agricultural use.

(8) Removal of fallen leaves and grass for the gatherer's own *bona-fide* agricultural and domestic uses.

(9) (*a*) Removal from coupes under exploitation, before commencement of plantation operations therein

(*b*) of felled timber not useful to and therefore left by contractors, and

(*c*) of branchwood of felled trees of the size *stipulated in contract* agreements, for the gatherer's own domestic or agricultural use.

(10) In cases of destruction by fire of houses in forest areas timber of inferior species required for temporary huts will be made available with the utmost promtitude by the Range Forest Officer on production of a certificate from the Mamlatdar

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. FOREST. Relations with public.

or Mahalkari concerned. The timber of only such species as have been prescribed by the Conservator will be granted.

In addition to the above ten privileges, the following are the privileges granted to the villagers in the areas of this district (Former Kolhapur district, excluding Jahagir areas):—

(1) Dry and fallen wood to be removed by head loads for domestic purposes.

(2) Rab material free to the extent of 25 head loads and thereafter on payment at one anna per head load.

(3) Free grants of timber or at scheduled rates are given to the poor and deserving persons.

Bawada Jahagir.—(1) Removal of dry, dead and fallen wood by the villagers free of charge by head loads.

(2) Free grant of timber to be given to poor and deserving people.

Vishalgad Jahagir.—Allowed to use the ways to the watering places and village temples in the forest area.

Ajra (Ichalkaranji Jahagir).—(1) Dry, dead and fallen wood to be removed by the villagers free of charge.

(2) Free grant of timber to be given to poor and deserving people.

In the administration of forests rights and privileges and in the work of forest protection and exploitation, the officials of the Forest department come into direct contact with the people A direct link between the people and the department has been established by the appointment of a "Forest Advisory Committee of District Rural Development Board" in this district. This Board deals with problems connected with the planting, allotment of grazing lands, improvement of grazing lands, the supply of various domestic, agricultural and individual needs, etc.

Roads and Buildings.

Roads and Buildings.—The maintenance of forest roads and buildings in this Division is done departmentally. There are Shikar roads extending to 95 miles in Radhanagari Range Besides, there is a Forest Rest House at Parle and also subordinates quarters at Patne.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT.

CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL is headed by the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Kolhapur. Many of the powers of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act (VII of 1925) and the rules under it have been delegated to him. There are two District Co-operative Officers, one is for the general organisation work and the other is for the development schemes under the Second Five-Year Plan. The District Co-operative Officer who is appointed for the development work under the Second Five-Year Plan is designated as Additional District Co-operative-Officer.

The Co-operative Officer has to attend to organisation work of all types of societies, inspections of the supervising unions and federal societies, urban banks, and salary earners' societies, control over supervisors, etc. The Additional District Co-operative Officer has to attend to the preparation of plans and budgets under the Second Five-Year Plan, and see that the work is executed according to the plans prepared. He has to attend to the development work of housing societies and other development works such as formation of large size multi-purpose societies, submission of proposals for construction of godowns of multi-purpose societies and purchase and sale societies, i.e., all work relating to development and schemes under the Second Five-Year Plan.

The Assistant District Co-operative Officer has to look after the work relating to the registration of the credit and multi-purpose societies, inspection of the same, scrutiny of the diaries and inspection memoes of the Supervisors' work relating to the enquiries into the complaints of members.

There is an Assistant District Co-operative Officer to look after incomplete co-operative lift irrigation. Originally there was only one post for this work but recently one more post of Assistant District Co-operative Officer for incomplete schemes and one post of mechanical supervisor have been created. The Assistant District Co-operative Officer for Lift Irrigation schemes attends to the work of co-operative lift irrigation societies, co-operative dam construction societies, co-operative farming societies, and the work of the four National Extensive Service Blocks. He attends to inspection, organisation and other work in relation to these societies, and National Extension Service Blocks. Since the appointment of the Assistant District Co-operative Officer for incomplete works the work relating to the co-operative lift irrigation and dam construction societies has been transferred to him and he looks to the work of these societies. The Mechanical Supervisor is expected to give technical guidance to the societies and issue progress certificates of the work done by the co-operative lift irrigation societies.

Audit.

There is a Special Auditor attached to Assistant Registrar's Office who exercise control over the audit staff. He has to see that the work done by the auditor and sub-auditors is done according to the programmes chalked out and approved by the department. He has to scrutinise the diaries and audit memoes submitted by the auditors and sub-auditors, attend to the work relating to misappropriation and enquiry cases. He is also required to submit audit progress reports, audit fee recovery and supervision fee recovery statements.

There are five auditors and eleven sub-auditors. Of the five auditors, one is meant for the audits of forest labourers' societies. One is meant for the audit of weavers' societies and the remaining three are meant for the audit of the co-operative

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. Co-operation. Other staff.

societies other than agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies. The sub-auditors are expected to take up the audits of agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies.

Other staff.—There is a Statistical Assistant and also an Accountant. The Statistical Assistant is expected to collect statistical data and submit reports required by the Registrar. He looks after submission of statistical reports under the Second Five-Year Plan. He is also expected to make surveys and collect statistical data as directed by the Statistician. The Accountant does the work relating to the loan accounts and recovery of the loan instalments in time. He has also to attend to the preparation of budgets and send expenditure statements.

There are more officers who look to the respective section of the co-operative movement in this district as indicated below:—

(1) Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies, (2) Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Sugar Factories, (3) Assistant Director of Small Scale Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, (4) Special Auditor for Co-operative Sugar Factories, (5) Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies for Paddy Pilot Schemes, (6) Marketing Inspector.

Paddy Cultivation.

Recently the district has been brought under the Paddy Cultivation Scheme sponsored by Government through Agricultural and Forest department. The work is carried out by the Assistant Registrar, Paddy Cultivation Scheme, who is stationed at Kolhapur. The duties of the Assistant Registrar for Paddy Cultivation Scheme consists of organisation and establishment of societies undertaking paddy cultivation on the Japanese method and making available loans to them for the purpose.

Regulated Markets.

The Kolhapur Market which was regulated under the provisions of the Kolhapur Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1945, for the purchase and sale of gul and groundnut was allowed to continue as a Regulated market under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939 on the merger of the Kolhapur State in Bombay. In addition, there is a regulated market at Gadhingalaj which is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act for the purchase and sale of *gul*, groundnut, chillies, jowar and bajri.

Sarvodaya Centre.

The State Government have adopted a scheme known as the "Sarvodaya" scheme, the aim of which is to bring about all-round intensive development, social, educational and economical, of selected compact blocks of backward villages (from 30 to 45) in each district, through a constructive programme which was foremost in the objectives of Mahatma Gandhi. This scheme aims at development of backward areas by means of measures relating to (1) education, (2) agricultural development, (3) cottage industries and industries subsidiary to agriculture, (4) health, water supply and conservancy, and (5) social and cultural development including prohibition.

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.
Co-operation.
Sarvodaya Centre.

One such Sarvodaya centre has been opened at Ajra mahal covering over 49 villages. The chief executive authority in the formulation and implementation of the scheme is a Sanchalak. He is assisted by a committee of non-officials known as the Sarvodaya Area Committee. Such a committee has been established for the Ajra Mahal Centre. Every year, a programme for the development of the area is formulated by the Sanchalak which is considered by the State Sarvodaya Committee before it is finally sanctioned by Government. During the financial year 1956-57, grants totalling Rs. 69,420 have been sanctioned for the Ajra Mahal Centre.

Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries.

Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries.
Organisation.

There is an Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Kolhapur Division which covers Kolhapur, South Satara and North Satara districts. Under him at the district level, there is a District Officer for Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives. There are three Industrial Supervisors of Grade I, an Industrial Supervisor of Grade III, a Handloom Supervisor, an instructor in cotton weaving and some clerical staff.

Industrial Co-operative Societies in Kolhapur number 110, with an aggregate share capital of Rs. 3,56,302, reserve funds amounting to Rs. 2,36,535 members' deposits amounting to Rs. 5,30,997 and the working capital coming to Rs. 16,43,422. These embrace a variety of industries like weaving, bee-keeping, carpentry, motor transport, pottery, wool weaving, etc. Table No. I supplies detailed information about their character, membership, etc.

Government conducts a wool weaving school, a leather works school and a hosiery training-*cum*-production centre at Kolhapur, a fibre work school at Talsande-Hatkanangale, a lacquer work school at Kale-Panhala, one tailoring school at Kale and another at Haldi-Karvir and a village pottery unit at Kadoli. Seven of these eight are peripatetic schools.

The work done in the community project area and the national development blocks showed that there were 42 industrial co-operative societies of different types; of these 39 societies were in receipt of loans of varying sums. Five weavers' society carry on activity under the handloom development scheme. Sales depots were also under contemplation.

As a first step in the development of an industrial estate (Shivaji Udyam Nagar), in this district, a co-operative society named the Kolhapur Udyam Co-operative Society Ltd., was organised and registered in November 1957. Government advanced a sum of Rs. 3,76,000 for the development of the industrial estate in 1957-58.

TABLE

STATEMENT GIVING THE INFORMATION OF ALL TYPES OF INDUSTRIAL

YEAR ENDING

Serial No.	Name of the Industry.	No of Socie-ties.	No. of mem-bers.	No. of looms.	No. of looms. Regis-tered.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Weavers Co-operative Societies ..	36	3,460	10,000	5,149
2	Bee Keepers Co-operative Societies..	2	98	..	.
3	Oil Producers Co-operative Societies.	2	28	.	..
4	Kurmure Pohe Producers Co-operative Societies	3	97	..	
5	Metal Workers Co-operative Societies	2	126	..	
6	Carpenters Co-operative Societies ..	5	129	..	..
7	Mahila Audyogik Co-operative Societies	4	109	..	..
8	Labourers Co-operative Societies ..	10	548	..	..
9	Motor Transport Workers Co-operative Society	1	136	..	..
10	Cine Industry Co-operative Society .	1	85	.	.
11	Tanners and Leather Workers Co-operative Societies	15	319	.	.
12	Kumbhar (Potters) Co-operative Societies	8	456	..	.
13	Rope makers Co-operative Societies .	5	107	..	.
14	Wool Weavers Co-operative Societies.	5	221	..	..
15	General Co-operative Societies ..	2	836	..	.
16	District Industrial Co-operative Association	1	44	..	.
17	Forest Labourers Co-operative Societies	8	738	..	..
	Total ..	110	7,443	10,000	5,149

* No. of looms under

No. I.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT FOR THE 30TH JUNE 1957.

Looms of the Societies' members.	Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Members, non-members' deposit.	Government Loan.	Working Capital.
7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
4,804	1,17,349	1,31,441	1,23,165	1,27,743	5,74,002
604*	1,170	604	968	....	3,984
..	2,875	49	700	....	14,376
.	3,030	99	225	7,217	10,571
....	4,510	132	3,000	....	7,883
....	5,507	190	4,804	10,863	21,340
....	1,830	409	683	800	3,875
..	6,480	4,377	8,620	7,800	26,726
. .	6,200	21,806	22	....	28,026
....	13,340	83	11	. ..	13,423
..	15,025	723	3,473	24,264	65,893
.. .	8,302	3,550	419	10,290	25,160
....	1,895	1,115	401	5,188	7,569
....	3,815	513	600	2,000	13,128
.. .	95,725	62,110	215	.. .	4,22,834
.	60,840	184	4,06,931	1,06,875	3,59,367
..	8,603	9,060	20,851	1,616	45,259
4,804 604*	3,56,302	2,36,535	5,80,997	3,03,856	16,43,422

productive activity.

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.

INDUSTRIES.

THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES.

THE WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES is mainly confined to the development and progress of small-scale and large-scale industries in the State, as its control over the development of cottage industries was, in December 1946, transferred to the Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries and its control over technical education and the various schemes related to it was, in June 1948, transferred to the Director of Technical Education.

Organization.

The officer directly in charge of small-scale and large-scale industries in the Kolhapur district is the Assistant Director of Industries (Class I State Service), who has his headquarters in Poona, and whose jurisdiction also extends to the districts of North Satara, South Satara Sholapur, Ratnagiri and Poona. He works directly under the Director of Industries, Maharashtra State. He is also in charge of work connected with the administration of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act (XV of 1932) and the Industrial Statistics Act (XIX of 1942). Besides collecting statutory statistics under the Industrial Statistics Act, 1942, he collects industrial and commercial information on a voluntary basis. He conducts commercial and industrial surveys required by the State or the Union Government and undertakes investigation in connection with references and complaints received from Indian embassies abroad and foreign embassies in India. He also conducts investigations in connection with the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) and reports cases of improper use of names and emblems specified in the schedule to the Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper use of) Act (XII of 1950), for trade, business, calling or profession etc. Purchase of stores is another subject under his jurisdiction. Under the State Aid to Industries Rules, he is empowered to sanction loans up to a limit of Rs. 1,000 in each case to applicants in his jurisdiction, subject to the condition that the total amount sanctioned by him does not exceed Rs. 5,000 in any one year. His miscellaneous duties extend to investigating into applications (made for industrial purposes) from parties in his area for land acquisition and erection of buildings and for essentiality certificates in connection with the import, export and purchase of controlled materials, such as iron and steel, cement, etc.

The Assistant Director is assisted in his work by an Industries Officer stationed at Poona, one Senior Industries Inspector, three Junior Industries Inspectors, four Manual Assistants and a small ministerial staff. This technical staff attends mainly to the work in the Kolhapur district and the Miraj and Jath talukas of South Satara district.

The duties assigned to Inspectors of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures Rules are carried out by the Industries Inspectors. The main purpose of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act is to provide for the adoption and

compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weight or measure or weighing or measuring instrument may be sold, delivered or used for trade, unless it has been verified or reverified in the manner prescribed by Rules made under the Act and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. Fees are fixed for the verification, stamping, etc. It is the duty of the Inspectors to carry out the verification and stamping and collect the fees.

The Industries Inspectors have also duties assigned to them under the Industrial Statistics Act. This Act is applicable to all factories registered under Sections 2m(i) and 2m(ii) of the Factories Act, 1948, but the scope of the Census of Manufacturing Industries conducted under this Act is at present (1957) limited to 29 of the 63 industries classified under the Census of Manufacturing Rules, 1945 and to factories working with power and employing 20 or more workers. The occupiers of factories are required to submit returns in the form prescribed. The Inspectors have to ensure that the factories concerned maintain proper accounts and registers and make their returns by the due date.

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

PUBLIC WORKS. Organisation.

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT deals with—(1) Roads and Buildings, (2) Irrigation, (3) Electricity, and (4) Public Health Circle. All these branches are dealt with separately by distinct branches of the department.

(1) *Roads and Buildings.*—The Kolhapur Division is permanent Division in charge of the Executive Engineer, Kolhapur Division under the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle. There are five Sub-Divisions under Kolhapur Division which are as follows :—

(*a*) Kolhapur Sub-Division, Kolhapur	Permanent.
(b) Panchganga Irrigation, Ichalkaranji Sub-Division	Temporary.
(*c*) Radhanagari Irrigation, Radhanagari Sub-Division	Temporary.
(*d*) Tulsi River Valley Project Sub-Division, Kolhapur	Temporary.
(*e*) Community Projects Sub-Division, Kolhapur	Temporary.

(2) *Irrigation.*—Major irrigation in the district is the Radhanagari Hydro-Electric Works situated in the Radhanagari taluka of Kolhapur district and is in charge of the Executive Engineer, Kolhapur Division under the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle. Being a major irrigation-*cum*-hydro electric project, capital accounts are maintained for the same. The scheme consists of a dam 140′ high across the Bhogawati

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. PUBLIC WORKS. Organisation.

near Radhanagari and contemplates (i) power generation of 2,000 K.W. at 50 per cent. load factor and (ii) irrigation of 32,000 acres by lift on the banks of the Bhogavati and the Panchganga.

Duties of Officers.

While each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, the divisions are in charge of Executive Engineers and the sub-divisions in charge of Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers. The Assistant Engineers belong to the Bombay Service of Engineers (B. S. E.), Class I, and Deputy Engineers to B. S. E., Class II. These officers are each in charge of a sub-division and are, therefore, called Sub-Divisional Officers. The sub-divisions are divided further into sections, each in charge of an Overseer. There are about 20 overseers in each division.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general professional control of public works in charge of officers of the department within his circle. It is his duty to inspect the state of the various works within his circle and to satisfy himself that the system of management prevailing is efficient and economical. He is required to ascertain the efficiency of the subordinate office and petty establishments and to see and report whether the staff employed in each division is actually necessary or adequate for the management. He also examines the conditions of the surveying and mathematical instruments at the headquarters of divisions. In the case of office and petty establishments borne on divisional scales, he sees that these scales are not exceeded without proper authority. The Superintending Engineers are empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and Overseers within their circles. In the interests of administration, however, Executive Engineers of Divisions are consulted before posting these officers to particular sub-divisional charges under their control. It is also the duty of Superintending Engineer to recommend removals and transfers of Executive Engineers from their own circles. The supervision and control of the assessment of revenue from irrigation works within his circle rests with the Superintending Engineer. The Superintending Engineer is authorised to correspond direct with any of the local authorities, civil or military, within his circle.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his circle for the execution and management of all works within his division. He has to see that proper measures are taken to preserve all buildings and works in his division and to prevent encroachment on Government lands in his charge. He is responsible to see that the surveying and mathematical instruments in his division are properly cared for and to report on their condition to the Superintending Engineer at the end of each working season. In addition to his duties, he is *ex-officio* professional adviser of all departments of the State within the limits of his charge.

Sub-Divisional Officers.

The Sub-Divisional Officers are responsible to the Executive Engineer in charge of the division for the management and execution of works within their sub-divisions.

The overseers are in charge of sections under the Sub-Divisional Officers.

Roads.

The activities of the Public Works department in regard to roads and buildings and irrigation relate to construction, repairs and maintenance of roads, Government buildings, and irrigation works financed by Government and placed in charge of the department. In the Kolhapur district, as on the 31st March 1957, the department maintained a total mileage of 115·67 miles of roads which comprised 27·37 miles of National Highways and 88·29 miles of State Highways. The surfaces of this road mileage were 25·18 miles cement concrete, 54·37 miles black-topped and 36·12 miles water bound macadam.

In addition to funds from the general revenues of the State allocated for expenditure on roads, there are two other funds maintained for the construction, repairs and maintenance of roads, *viz.*, (1) the Central Road Fund, and (2) the State Road Fund. The Central Road Fund is in charge of the Government of India who allocates the fund. Expenditure is incurred in the district for roads from these funds.

Irrigation.

Irrigation Works.—The following are the minor irrigation works in Kolhapur district under the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle :—

(1) Wadgaon Tank, Taluka Hatkanangale ;

(2) Rankala Tank, Taluka Karvir ;

(3) Rajaram Tank, Taluka Karvir.

For the above works, neither capital nor revenue accounts are kept, whereas such accounts are kept for the work of the Chikhale canal. There are also medium irrigation works in the district, viz., weir at Kasaba-Bavada, Surve-weir at Valivade, weirs at Rui, Terwad and Shirol.

Apart from these works, one bandhara work at Halkarni, and other 18 works have also been completed by March 1957.

Electrical Circle.

For carrying out advisory, administrative and executive duties pertaining to the generation and use of electricity, there is the Electrical Circle under the Electrical Engineer to Government. The jurisdiction of this officer extends to the whole of the State. Under him are two Electrical Divisions, each in charge of an Executive Engineer, having their head-quarters at Bombay and Poona.

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. PUBLIC WORKS. Electrical circle.

The Kolhapur Electrical Sub-Division under Poona Electrical Division is in charge of the electrical installations.

The Executive Engineer has to do duties relating to electrical installations in Government buildings, such as execution of original works, carrying out special repairs, and maintenance. He is also Electrical Inspector under the Indian Electricity Act (IX of 1910) and carries out inspections of M. P. and H. T. electrical installations, power houses, mills, cinemas, etc.

Public Health Circle.

The Public Health Circle is a specialist branch of the Public Works Department, dealing with all problems of public health, viz., water supply, drainage, sewerage and environmental sanitation throughout the State of Maharashtra. The Public Health Engineer to Government, with headquarters at Poona, directs the activities of this branch throughout the State. The main functions of the Circle are the execution of Government and municipal public health schemes and the supervision of public health schemes executed by local bodies through their own agencies. The Circle also gives advice, so far as public health problems are concerned, to other departments of Government in connection with schemes sponsored by them. It maintains a large number of water works in the State, either owned by Government or owned by local bodies but entrusted to Government for running at the cost of the local bodies. It also maintains Boring Works Sub-divisions at Poona and Ahmedabad to take bores for water supply purposes and for exploration works for dams and bridges, and has under its control a workshop at Dapuri.

The Public Health Works Division, Kolhapur, is under the jurisdiction of the Southern Public Health Circle, Poona. Kolhapur division with headquarters at Kolhapur has jurisdiction over the revenue districts of Ratnagiri, Kolhapur, Sholapur, South Satara and five talukas of North Satara district, viz., Man, Khatav, Jaoli, Patan and Karad. This division is further divided into five sub-divisions each in charge of Deputy Engineer (called Sub-Divisional Officer). The five sub-divisions are: (i) Kolhapur Water Supply Sub-Division, Kolhapur; (ii) Miraj Sanitary Sub-Division, Miraj; (iii) Sangli Sanitary Sub-Division, Sangli; (iv) Sholapur Sanitary Sub-Division, Sholapur and (v) Ratnagiri Sanitary Sub-Division, Ratnagiri.

The Kolhapur Water Supply Sub-Division is entrusted with the works pertaining to remodelling city distribution system of Kolhapur and providing and fixing water meters on the distribution system. In addition this Sub-Division also looks after maintenance and repair to Kolhapur Water Works. Sawantwadi Water Works and Gandhinagar Water Works.

Bombay State Road Transport Corporation.

ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.

Nationalisation of Passenger Transport was decided upon by the State Government in August 1947 and operations were started departmentally in June 1948. the administration of which was subsequently handed over to a statutory Corporation in December 1949, under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act (XXXII of 1948). Since then the Corporation, has been reconstituted under the Bombay State Road Transport Act (XXV of 1950).

Organisation.

For administrative convenience of operations the entire State was originally divided into 16 viable units (now eight after transfer of three to Mysore and five to Gujarat) called divisions. The officer in charge of each division is the Divisional Controller who is a Class I Officer. The Divisional Controller is immediately under the control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head, assisted by eleven departments, viz. (1) Administration, (2) Traffic, (3) Mechanical Engineering, (4) Accounts and Audit, (5) Statistics (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering, (9) Secretarial, (10) Legal, and (11) Central Workshops.

The nationalisation of services was started in Kolhapur district in July 1950. The Divisional Controller, is the Head of the Division and responsible for the operations. He is assisted by seven Class II officers, who are charged with the following functional responsibilities.

Administration and Traffic.—There are two Officers under these heads of activity. The Divisional Traffic Officer who is in charge of all matters related to traffic and operations and the Labour Officer who looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration. Matters relating to publicity in the division are also looked after by the Labour Officer.

Accounts and Statistics.—These branches are manned by two Officers, the Divisional Accounts Officer and the Divisional Statistician.

Technical.—The technical side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer with the assistance of a Divisional Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many Depot Managers as there are depots who are wholly responsible for the working of the depots.

Statistics.

The operations started with 37 buses plying on 15 routes. By 31st May 1957 the operations were practically spread over the whole district, the division holding a fleet of 250 buses plying on 171 routes. The buses put on the road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 38·3, exclusive of seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily mileage operated by these buses during May 1957 was 21,002 carrying on an average 53,761 passengers per day.

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION. Statistics.

The division also holds a fleet of 12 trucks as on 31st May 1957. These trucks operate as public carriers on contract basis, on terms prescribed by the Corporation. Besides these contracts, scheduled lorry services are also operated on the Miraj-Kolhapur route every day and on the Ichalkaranji-Bombay route every week, for the carriage of goods.

Workshops and Depots.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses and trucks are carried out at the Divisional Workshop, which is situated at Kolhapur. Further, after the operation of every 12,000 miles, the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, a number of depot workshops are situated at each of the following places for the daily maintenance of the vehicles *viz*. Kolhapur (82), Karad (31), Sangli (31), Vita (17). Islampur (16), Ichalkaranji (14), Tasgaon (12), and Jath (7). The number of vehicles attached to each of these depots are given in brackets. Regular daily and weekly servicing, weekly and 3,000 mile docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

Amenities.

For the convenience of the travelling public the corporation has been providing a number of amenities. So far bus stations have been erected at Kolhapur. Umbraj, Sangli, Karad, Islampur, Jaisingpur, Vita, Tasgaon, Vadgaon, Kadepur, Jath, Miraj, Mayani, Khanapur and Ichalkaranji. Canteens with 'pan bidi' stalls and fruit-stalls have been attached to them at Kolhapur, Umbraj, Sangli, Karad, Islampur, Jaisingpur, Vita, Tasgaon, Vadgaon, Kadepur, Jath, Miraj, Mayani and Khanapur.

Welfare Facilities for Employees.

The corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. Facilities for sports, medical attention, and canteens have been provided for workers at Kolhapur. A Staff Institute and Reading Room has also been provided at Kolhapur and rest rooms have been opened at Kolhapur, Tasgaon, Ichalkaranji, Islampur and Jath for the inspection staff. About 60 tenements for the staff are under construction in the proposed housing colony at Kolhapur.

THE FISHERIES DEPARTMENT.

FISHERIES. Organisation.

A SUPERINTENDENT OF FISHERIES WAS APPOINTED WITH HEAD-QUARTERS AT KOLHAPUR with the opening of a sub-office there in 1951. This officer is entrusted with the supervision of fisheries in North Satara, South Satara and Sholapur districts also and he works directly under the Director of Fisheries, Maharashtra State, Bombay. One Assistant Superintendent, a clerk-*cum*-typist and a peon are attached to his office. For implementation of a scheme to undertake deep tank fishing operations with special type of nets in the Radhanagari lake additional staff consisting of one Assistant Superintendent and his subordinates is stationed at Radhanagari and works directly under the supervision of the Superintendent of Fisheries, Kolhapur.

The duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries are as under :—

(i) To lease out fishing rights of portions of the rivers, tanks and ponds in the district.

(ii) Survey of new sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture.

(iii) Stocking of tanks and ponds with suitable varieties of fish every year.

(iv) Collection of local fry and its nurture in nursery tanks.

(v) Supervision of the tanks.

(vi) Formation and supervision of the fisheries co-operative societies and to devise ways and means to improve the socio-economic condition of fishermen.

(vii) To investigate applications from fishermen for loan from Government.

(viii) To watch and effect loan recoveries and credit the money to treasury.

(ix) To encourage fishermen to take advantage of the different schemes of the department.

(x) To collect statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen of the district.

(xi) To serve as member and to attend the meeting of the District Development Boards and their respective sub-committees.

(xii) To supervise deep tank fishing operations.

(xiii) To supervise the work of development of fisheries in Kolhapur, Sholapur, North and South Satara districts.

CHAPTER 17—WELFARE DEPARTMENTS.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

INTRODUCTION.

THE EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS IN THE DISTRICT are in keeping with the general educational backwardness in the country. However, the major portion of the district which was under the sovereignty of the former Indian ruler could be regarded as possessing better literacy standards as compared to other parts in the State due to superior educational reforms introduced by the ruler of the State. The gradual increase in the number of literates from 34,334 in 1911 to 1,30,895 in 1951 is a sufficient testimony to this fact. With the exception of the Government's Arts and Science College, facilities for higher education were few and far between. The middle and secondary schools were located in a few important towns only so that upper primary educational facilities were available only to a part of urban populace. Education was rather a dream to the ruralites. The last few years have witnessed a radical change in the whole structure of education in the district. There are quite a few colleges giving education in different faculties. Practically any place with a population of more than 5,000 or over has a secondary and upper middle school. All the villages have been provided with educational facilities under various schemes undertaken and implemented by the Government. The following few figures give an idea of the varied education received by the people of the district :—

Total literates	1,30,895
Middle School	15,126
S. L. C. or Matriculates	4,189
Intermediate Arts or Science	972
Graduates	1,019
Post Graduates in Arts, Commerce and Science	89
Teaching	656
Engineering	87
Agriculture	18
Veterinary	5
Commerce	36
Law	386
Medicine	190
Other	56

CHAPTER 17.
Welfare Departments.
EDUCATION.
Organisation.

FOR PURPOSES OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT is placed under the Educational Inspector, South Satara and Kolhapur districts. The officer belongs to Class I of the Maharashtra Educational Service and is directly under the control of the Director of Education. He is responsible in the district for—

(*i*) the supervision of primary education;

(*ii*) the administrative control of all Government primary and secondary schools and training institutions under the control of the Education Department; and

(*iii*) the control and inspection of all secondary schools, including English teaching schools, vocational high schools (i.e. agricultural, commercial and technical high schools), training institutions for primary teachers and such special schools as are under the control of the Education Department. In so far as girls' schools and institutions for women are concerned, the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Poona, (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class I), performs the function and duties of the District Educational Inspector in respect of :—

(*a*) the inspection of girls' secondary and special schools in the district, and

(*b*) visiting girls' primary schools in the district and making suggestions for improvement.

In carrying out his duties of inspection and control, the Educational Inspector is assisted by an inspecting staff consisting of one Deputy Educational Inspector (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class II) and 15 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class III), who are directly responsible to the Educational Inspector for the superintendence and inspection of primary schools in the district under Section 48 of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947). There is also one Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class III), who under the administrative control of the Educational Inspector, Kolhapur district, is responsible for the inspection of primary girls' schools in the district.

There are separate Inspectors, having jurisdiction over the whole State, for Physical Education, Visual Education, Drawing and Craft-work and Commercial Schools, who carry out organisation and inspection in their respective spheres. These Inspectors have jurisdiction in the Kolhapur district in regard to their respective subjects directly under the Director of Education.

The Deputy Educational Inspector, Kolhapur, is the Chief Government Inspecting Officer of the district so far as primary schools are concerned. Under the rules framed under the

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. EDUCATION. Organisation.

Bombay Primary Education Act, he decides the question of recognition of private primary schools. He has to keep close touch with the working of primary schools maintained or approved by school boards, social education classes and village reading rooms. He has to report upon the housing, equipment, staff, efficiency of instruction etc. of the primary schools so that the department may be in a position to determine whether the School Board is conducting its schools satisfactorily or not. All aided schools are inspected by him or by the inspecting staff under him. He also assists the Educational Inspector in the inspection of secondary schools and reports on any specific points about them whenever he is required to do so by the Educational Inspector.

Primary Education.

PRIMARY EDUCATION: It is the declared policy of Government that universal free and compulsory primary education should be reached by a definite programme of progressive expansion, and under the Bombay Primary Education Act, the State Government has taken upon itself the duty of securing the development and expansion of primary education in the State. A minimum course of seven years' education for every child is the objective aimed at. The agencies employed for discharging this duty are the district school boards and authorised municipalities.

District School Board.

"Approved Schools"* within the area of all non-authorised municipalities and of the District Local Board are under the control of the Kolhapur District School Board. This School Board is composed of 16 members. Of these, three are appointed by Government, one being a Government official. The remaining 13 members are elected by the Kolhapur District Local Board. The rules prescribe that, of those elected, one shall be from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and three should have passed the Matriculation or Second Year Training Certificate Examination.

School Board Municipality, Kolhapur.

The Kolhapur municipality is the only authorised municipality in the district. Its School Board was composed of 14 members of whom no one was appointed by Government and all were elected by the Municipality under the rules. Of the elected members, one is to be from the Scheduled Castes or the Scheduled Tribes and three should have passed the Matriculation or Second Year Training Certificate Examination.

Working of Primary Education Act.

Under the Primary Education Act and the rules thereunder, all district school boards and authorised municipalities have to maintain an adequate number of primary schools in which

* "Approved School" means a primary school maintained by the State Government or by the School Board or by an authorised municipality or which is for the time being recognised as such by a School Board or by the State Government or by an officer authorised by it in this behalf [Section 2 of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947)].

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. EDUCATION. Primary Education. *Working of Primary Education Act.*

instruction is given through the medium of the local regional language. For children whose mother-tongue is different from the regional language of the area, school boards have been instructed to open schools in their language, if the number of such children is not less than 40 in the first four standards and 20 in the upper standards. The teaching of the regional language of the area is also compulsory in such schools from standard III onwards. An authorised municipality has to make such provision in its budget as will enable approved schools in its area to receive grants at the rates authorised by Government. Responsibility is laid on the District School Board to maintain a schedule of staff of Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors, primary teachers, clerks and inferior servants and other staff sanctioned by Government, setting forth the designation, grades, pay and nature of appointment of different members. The members of this staff are servants of the District School Board and receive their pay, allowances, etc. from the Primary Education Fund maintained by the School Board. No change or alteration can be made in the schedule of staff without the previous sanction of Government. The School Board of the Kolhapur municipality has also to prepare a similar schedule for its permanent staff. The rules made under the Act lay down model conditions of employment of teachers in private schools.

The annual budget of the District School Board has to be submitted to the Director of Education for sanction. The District School Board derives its income mainly from Government grants which form nearly 96 per cent. of its total expenture. It also receives from the District Local Board a contribution equal to such portion of its income from the cess on land revenue and water rates as may be fixed by Government from time to time and from non-authorised municipalities whose schools are under its control such proportion of the rateable value of properties in the area of the respective municipalities as may be fixed by Government from time to time. The District Local Board, Kolhapur, has under the present rules, to contribute 15 pies in a rupee as cess on land revenue besides water rates that it may be allowed to levy. The amount to be paid by non-authorized municipalities has been fixed by Government as 5 per cent. of the rateable value of properties in their respective areas. The Primary Education Fund of the Kolhapur Municipality is composed partly of the Government grant which forms nearly 33·5 per cent. of its expenditure on primary education.

The Chief Executive Officer of the Kolhapur District School Board is its Administrative Officer. This officer is appointed and paid by the State Government. The Adminstrative Officer of the School Board of the Kolhapur Municipality is also appointed and paid by the State Government. Under these Administrative Officers are Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors, primary school teachers, clerks, and inferior servants and other staff

Working of Primary Education Act.

under the employ of the District School Board or authorised municipality, as the case may be. The Administrative Officer is responsible for the general administration of all primary schools maintained by the School Board. He is responsible for carrying out the suggestions made from time to time by Government officers.• It is his duty to advise the School Board on all matters connected with primary education. He is also a member and secretary of the Staff Selection Committee. This Committee is composed, besides himself, of the Chairman of the School Board and the Educational Inspector of the district. Its duty is to select candidates for appointment as Assistant Administrative Officers or supervisors and teachers. The Committee selects also the teachers to be deputed for training. The District School Board or the authorised municipality or their Administrative Officers have to make appointments of the candidates in accordance with the directions given by the Committee. The selection of candidates and teachers is made in accordance with the instructions issued by the Government. The Administrative Officer has power, subject to the general instructions issued by the Director of Education, to promote, transfer, and take all disciplinary action, including removal or dismissal against the staff. His orders, however, are subject to appeal to a tribunal consisting of the Chairman of the School Board and the Educational Inspector of the district. A primary school teacher who was a guaranteed teacher on the date of the Primary Education Act came into force has, however, a right of further appeal to the State Government against any order of removal or dismissal.

Statistics.

The statistics that follow relate to the Kolhapur District as a whole for the year 1952-53.

There were 945 primary schools (both lower primary i.e. teaching standards I to IV, and upper primary i.e, teaching standards V to VII) of which 49 were exclusively for girls. The distribution of schools by management was as follows:—

(1) Government . .	Nil.
(2) District School Board	596
(3) District School Board aided	255
(4) Kolhapur School Board aided	48
(5) Unaided	23
	922

Out of a total of 89,624 pupils in primary schools, there were 58,039 boys and 15,932 girls in the lower primary stage (i.e., standards I to IV) and 13,575 boys and 2,078 girls in the upper primary stage (i.e., standards V to VII). The percentage of school-going children to the population was 7·2.

CHAPTER 17.
Welfare Departments.
EDUCATION.
Primary Education.
Statistics.

Out of 2,461 teachers in primary schools 2,213 were men and 248 were women. Only 899 men teachers and 83 women teachers were trained.

There were three primary training institutions, two for men and one for women, which trained 175 men and 100 women respectively during the year. All the three were non-Government training institutions.

The total expenditure on primary schools was Rs. 25,30,151 and it was met from the following sources :—

	Rs.	Percentage of total.
(1) Government ...	20,33,290	80·3
(2) District Local Board and Municipal Funds ...	260,338	10·2
(3) Fees ...	58,591	2·3
(4) Other sources ...	1,77,932	7·2
		100

The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 28·2 per annum of which Government's contribution came to Rs. 22·7.

The scheme of compulsory primary education has not yet been applied to this district. However, public opinion is ripe for it.

Since October, 1952 the project scheme has been applied to the backward and hilly parts of the district, which include about 203 villages, with a view to achieving all-sided development. The scheme is gaining popularity and as a result some school buildings have been constructed with the help of popular aid and grants at the rate of Rs. 1,000 per room from the Project Funds.

Basic and Craft Schools.

Basic and Craft Schools.—A new ideology has been influencing the educational activities of the State since 1937-38. It has come to be recognised that education must centre round some form of manual productive work. According to the figures for 1952, there were three basic schools in the Kolhapur district where education was made to centre round spinning and weaving. Spinning and weaving formed the craft in 28 craft schools, card-board and carpentry in one craft school and agriculture in 135 craft schools. These schools resemble the old type agricultural bias schools in the Bombay State.

Secondary Education.—Secondary Education is now under the general regulations of Government, and the Government control is exercised by means of conditions for receipt of grant-in-aid. At the end of the high school course an examination is conducted by the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board Poona and the students who pass are awarded the secondary school certificate. The first examination was held in 1949. The examination provided optional courses for pupils with varied interests and aptitudes. Each university, however, lays down subjects which a candidate must take for entrance to its courses.

Statistics.

The statistics that follow relate to the year 1952-53 for the Kolhapur district.

Secondary Schools.

There were 40 secondary schools in the district with a total of 10,863 pupils (8,800 boys and 2,063 girls). Four of these were exclusively for girls, seven exclusively for boys and the remaining 29 were co-educational institutions. The number of girls in the schools exclusively meant for girls was 1,343 while 720 girls were in mixed schools. The following table shows the number of schools under different managements and the number of pupils in them:—

	No. of schools.	No. of pupils.
Government ..	5	1,464
Local Authorities ...	Nil.	Nil.
Aided Private ...	33	9,040
Unaided ..	2	156
Total .	40	10,669

Thus secondary education was imparted mainly by private agencies aided by Government grants.

There were 497 teachers in secondary schools of whom 472 were men (224 trained and 248 untrained) and 25 were women (14 trained and 11 untrained). In all 1,069 candidates appeared for the Secondary School Certificate Examination and 540 passed.

The total expenditure on secondary education was Rs. 8,54,095 of which Rs. 2,92,470 (or 30 per cent.) came from Government funds, Rs. 6,400 (or 0·74 per cent.) from municipal funds, Rs. 4,58,435 (or 57 per cent.) from fees, Rs. 12,960 (or 1·5 per cent.) from endowments and Rs. 83,725 (or 9·8 per cent.) from scholarships and other sources.

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. EDUCATION. Secondary Schools. *Statistics.*

The total annual average cost per pupil in secondary schools was as follows:—

		Total cost.	Cost to Government.
Board Schools	...	...	...
Aided Private	...	2,92,470	26·9
Board Schools	...	...	...
Government Schools	...	1,63,127	12·08

Drawing Examinations.

Drawing Examinations.—Government holds drawing examinations—Elementary and Intermediate. In 1952-53, 323 appeared for the Elementary of whom 211 passed. For the Intermediate 185 candidates appeared and 112 passed. These figures relate to Kolhapur district only.

Special Schools. Technical Schools.

(*a*) *Technical Schools.*—These come under the jurisdiction of the Director of Technical Education and an account of these is given under the paragraph relating to "Technical and Industrial Training."

Schools for Defectives.

(*b*) *Schools for Defectives.*—There was only one institution for the education of defectives viz., the Deaf and Dumb School founded in 1942, having 18 pupils on the roll.

Language Schools.

(*c*) *Language Schools.*—There was one institution founded in 1903 imparting instruction in Sanskrit viz., Shri Shahu Vaidic School with 20 pupils on the roll. There was also a Hindustani Shikshan Sanad Class, Kolhapur, with 31 pupils established in April, 1952.

Certified Schools.

(*d*) *Certified Schools.*—An account of these is given under the Juvenile and Beggars Department.

Other Special Schools and Institutions.

(*e*) *Other Special Schools.*—The following is a list of other kinds of special schools with the number of institutions of each kind and of the pupils enrolled :—

	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
(1) Nursery and Kindergarten schools.	4	200
(2) Commercial Schools ..	5	192
(3) Gymnasia ...	19	861
(4) Music Schools and Fine Arts Classes.	4	41

Extension Training Centre.

There is one Extension Training Centre established in October, 1952 by Government to train workers by giving them intensive training in agriculture, co-operation, revenue matters, public health, basic education, veterinary service, etc. The courses are of various durations, some are for a period of six months and others for a year. About 223 people have been trained in the centre so far.

Physical Education.

Physical Education.—One Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector holding Diploma in Physical Education looks after and organises Physical Education in the district both in primary and secondary schools.

Physical Education is a compulsory subject in secondary schools. There is a regular examinaton in it. Pupils attend the playground regularly and a programme of physical education is organised regularly in most of the schools. In primary schools also provision of physical education has been made, but there is no regular examination. Children in primary schools play games.

Every year a two months' course in physical education is organised at suitable places in the district by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector for Physical Education. About 50 primary teachers are trained and these teachers organise Physical Education in the primary schools where they work.

A one-year diploma course in Physical Education is organised at Kandivali for graduate secondary teachers.

Boy Scouts, Girl Guides and Junior National Cadet Corps.

Boy Scouts, Girl Guides and Junior National Cadet Corps.—In 1952-53, there were 7,393 boy scouts and cubs and 1,032 girl guides. A grand scout rally of about 6,000 Scouts was organised in the year under report. There were six units of the Junior National Cadet Corps and 192 cadets with six officers in the district.

Medical Inspection.

Medical Inspection.—No medical inspection is held in colleges and primary schools. Pupils in secondary schools are medically examined thrice during their career. The services of private medical practitioners are secured on a part-time basis to examine the pupils.

Visual Education.

Visual Education.—An Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector who looks after physical education work, is in charge of the work of visual instruction in the Kolhapur district. Visual instruction is generally provided by means of film-projectors (16 mm).

School Broadcast.

School Broadcast.—About 25 per cent. of the high schools in the district have their own sets of radio receivers. Every institution gives a chance for its pupils to attend educational broadcasts.

Social Education.

Social Education.—The work of Social Education in the Kolhapur district was looked after by the Maharashtra Regional Social Education Committee. The First and Second Test classes conducted numbered 595 and 211 respectively. In the First Test 4,141 passed and in the Second Test 1,073 passed. An expenditure of Rs. 21,929 was incurred for Social Education in the Kolhapur district including the Kolhapur city.

Village Libraries.

Village Libraries.—The number of village reading rooms started under the Social Education Scheme at the end of 1952-53 was 72 and a grant amounting to Rs. 1,439 was paid to them.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments. Technical and Industrial Training.

Technical and Industrial Training.

All Technical and Industrial Institutions and Courses leading up to the diploma standard (non-University grade), excluding those falling under the control of a University, are controlled by the Director of Technical Education, who is assisted by the State Council of Technical Education. The Director of Technical Education is the Secretary of the Council.

The Yeravda Industrial School, which is managed by the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, is recognised by the Board for inspection and examination. It teaches Carpentry "C" (I, II and III years), Agricultural Smithy (I and II years); Practical Tailoring (I, II and III years), Cane Work (I year), and Wool Knitting and Weaving (I, II and III years).

The following Institutions are registered for inspection, examination and grant-in-aid in Kolhapur district, Maharashtra State :—

Name of the Institutions.	Management.	Course of Institution.
1. Jadhav Tailoring and Cutting College, Tarabai Road, Kolhapur.	Jadhav Tailoring and Cutting College, Kolhapur.	Tailoring and Cutting.
2. Grihashashtra Samatha, 231, Tarabai Park, Kolhapur.	Grihashashtra Samatha, Kolhapur.	Tailoring Course in Women's and Childrens' Garments.

The following Institutions are also run by Government in the Kolhapur district, Bombay State :—

Name of the Institutions.	Management.	Course of Institutions.
1. Shivaji Technical Institute, Kolhapur.	Government. ..	1. Mechanical Engineering (Certificate). 2 Carpentry (Certificate). 3. Pattern Making (Certificate.) 4. Electroplating (Certificate). 5. Wireman (Certificate). 6. Electrician (Certificate).

The Government also runs a Technical High School in conjunction with the Shivaji Technical Institute, Kolhapur. Students of Standard VIII and onwards of local secondary schools are given free instruction in:—

(1) Geometrical and Mechanical Drawing,

(2) Workshop Technology (Grade I) and

(3) Elements of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering which they offer for the Secondary School Certificate Examination.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.
MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.
Organisation.

THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

THE MEDICAL ORGANISATION OF THE KOLHAPUR DISTRICT (AS DISTINCT FROM ITS PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION) ESSENTIALLY CONSISTS of organisation of hospitals and dispensaries designed to render medical relief to the general population. The C. P. R. Hospital, Kolhapur, is the "Civil Hospital" at the headquarters. It is owned, financed and controlled by Government. Subsidiary to it, there are Municipal, District Local Board, Government Dispensaries, Rural Medical Relief Centres and Subsidised Medical Practitioners Centres scattered throughout the whole district.

There is a Municipal Hospital and Maternity Home at Ichalkaranji which was under the control of Government but was transferred since April 1956 to the Municipality. The Medical Officer of the Hospital is also under the control of Municipality. There is one grant-in-aid District Local Board Dispensary at Chandgad and the Medical Officer of the Dispensary is a Government Officer, who draws his pay and pension directly from Government.

The Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur, is the administrative head of the medical organization in the district. He is directly subordinate to the Surgeon-general with the Government of Bombay, Bombay. He is in charge of the medical arrangements of the C. P. R. Hospital, Kolhapur and exercises complete control over the Medical Officers attached to it. He is also the head of the Government Institutions in the district and is responsible for their efficiency and discipline and for the proper performance of their working. He is an Inspecting Officer of all Government dispensaries in the district. He is expected to keep himself well informed as to all medical matters in the district and to be able to furnish any information on medical matters which may be required by Government. He has under him a medical staff of Bombay Medical Service Class II—seven, Honorary Medical Officers—10, Bombay Medical Service Class III Officers—20 and Bombay Medical Service Class III (A)—2.

The C. P. R. Hospital, which was started by the Ex-Kolhapur State in the year 1884, was taken over by Bombay Government from 1st August 1949 after the merger of Deccan States. It has a large and commodious building which can accommodate 200 beds. It is classified in five Wards and Departments viz. X-Ray Department, Out-Patients Department, Medical Stores, Laboratory and Linen Department. The Linen is in charge of the Matron. The Training School at this Hospital has been started in 1951 and the School has made rapid progress in imparting the training. The results have been very encouraging. 30 probationary student nurses are under training at this Institution. There is a post of Sister-Tutor at this Hospital for teaching the Student Nurses. There exists a Nursing Home with

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. MEDICAL DEPARTMENT. Organisation.

five rooms which was newly started during 1956-57. Well-to-do persons can take advantage of it by paying reasonable charges. The daily average attendance of in-door patients at this hospital is 232 and that of out-door patients is 532 during the year 1956. The income of the hospital is Rs. 27,084 and expenditure is Rs. 4,49,199 during the year.

Attached to this hospital is an Advisory Committee with the Civil Surgeon as the Chairman and six other members. The function of this Committee is to help the management of the hospital by keeping the authorities informed as to the needs of the hospital as viewed by the public and by advising the Medical Officer in-charge on all measures of reform to be carried out in connection with the welfare of the patients. The Departmental Rules provide for the election to the committee, of representatives from the District Local Board and Kolhapur Municipal Borough, Kolhapur and also for the nomination of two ladies.

In addition to this, there is a Leprosy Colony at Kolhapur which is under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur. It accommodates 150 persons The incidence of leprosy in Kolhapur district is large. The isolation of leprosy patients as well as their treatment and rehabilitation are the most important points in dealing with the problem of the leprosy patients in the State, a problem which has to be dealt with more energetically in a *Welfare State*. Since the application of the Leprosy Act to the District of Kolhapur as well as to the adjoining districts, it becomes the responsibility of the State to isolate, at least the positive cases with active lesions to prevent the spread of the disease Taking into consideration this problem, the Government have recently sanctioned to open a Leprosy Control Centre at Shahuwadi in this district. The Centre will start its function before the end of this financial year.

Tuberculosis Ward.—This hospital has a separate T. B. Ward with accommodation for 18 patients (nine Male and nine Female) and has an O. P. D. T. B. Clinic conducted thrice a week where arrangements for A. P. & P. P. are made. The incidence of T. B. in this district is high and more accommodation is necessary.

Rural Medical Relief Scheme.

Rural Medical Relief Scheme is in existence in this district for the last ten years and is rendering wonderful service to the village population, so far as relief of common ailments is concerned. There are at present 117 centres working throughout the district. They are providing allopathic medical aid to the public. The Scheme is providing simple remedies at a price within the reach of village patients. Rural Medical Relief Scheme is run by sub-dispensers who are either School teachers, secretaries of Gram Panchayats or social workers from a village. They are given two weeks training prior to being permitted to run a Centre. The Ex-Kolhapur State Administration was the first in the whole of Bombay State to start this Scheme.

There are at present the following Hospitals and Dispensaries under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur:—

(1) C. P. R. Hospital, Kolhapur.

(2) Shenda Part Leprosy Colony, Kolhapur.

(3) Services Hospital, Kolhapur.

(4) Gandhinagar Colony Hospital, Valivade (Refugee).

(5) Government Dispensary, Panhala.

(6) Government Dispensary, Malkapur.

(7) Government Dispensary, Bambavade.

(8) Government Dispensary, Kagal.

(9) Government Dispensary, Kapshi.

(10) Government Dispensary, Murgud.

(11) Government Dispensary, Gargoti.

(12) Government Dispensary, Ajra.

(13) Government Dispensary, Gadhinglaj.

(14) Government Dispensary, Shirol.

(15) Government Dispensary, Kurundwad.

(16) Government Dispensary, Radhanagari.

(17) Government Dispensary, Vadgaon.

(18) Government Dispensary, Gaganbavada.

(19) Mobile Dispensary, District Kolhapur.

(20) Police Hospital, Sambre.

(21) D. L. B. Dispensary, Chandgad.

(22) K. E. M. Municipal Hospital and Maternity Home Ichalkaranji.

There are no Ayurvedic Dispensaries under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur.

There are now six Subsidised Medical Practitioners Centres working in this district. (1) Akkiwat (2) Ganehwadi (3) Here (4) Kowad (5) Halkarni and (6) Ghotagewadi.

PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

The public health of the district is looked after by three agencies viz. the State Government, local bodies and village panchayats. Public vaccination and execution of measures necessary for public health are obligatory duties of the District Local Board and the municipalities. The village panchayats, too have certain sanitary functions such as water supply, sanitation and preservation and improvement of public health. The Public Health Department of the State functions as an advisory body to the local bodies in respect of public health and sanitary problems.

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Welfare Departments.
PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.
Organisation.

The headquarters of the Director of Public Health (i.e., the head of the Department), Assistant Director of Public Health, Southern Registration District (i.e., the divisional officer) are at Poona. The Southern Registration District includes the districts of Sholapur, North Satara, South Satara and Kolhapur. The duties of the Assistant Director of Public Health in charge of this district include (a) vaccination (b) tendering of advice with regard to the sanitation of the various urban and rural areas his charge (c) inspection of birth and death registers when on tour (d) supervision of the general health of the district, ascertaining the movements and causes of the various epidemic diseases which may occur in the district, and advising revenue and local authorities as regards remedial and preventive measures, and (e) sanitary arrangements of fairs and festivals. The Kolhapur State was merged with Bombay State in August 1949 and the District Health Scheme was introduced into this district on a par with Bombay State by supplementing the staff.

Under this scheme, the District Health Officer is a subordinate officer under the administrative control of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Southern Registration District. Among his duties the following are important (a) to organise and control the sanitary, anti-epidemic and vaccination work of the area under his charge; (b) to advise the District Local Board, village panchayats, and municipalities that have no Medical Officers of Health, on all matters affecting the health of the residents in their area and on all points involved in the action of local bodies in this respect; and (c) to enforce orders, regulations and rules relating to public health which may be issued by any competent authority. He has powers to enquire into and report to the proper authorities upon the accommodation available in hospitals and dispensaries either maintained or aided by the District Local Board for the isolation of infectious cases occurring in the district and upon any need for the provision of further accommodation. He directs and superintendents the work of his own subordinate public health nucleus staff and also of vaccinators, medical officers in charge of dispensaries and subsidised medical practitioners engaged by or directly under the District Local Board so far as public health is concerned, and anti-epidemic workers appointed by the Board.

Government offers to pay the municipalities, classified as Class I and II, a grant to cover a part of the salary of the Medical Officers of Health and Sanitary Inspectors. In respect of Class III towns subsidy is offered only on the pay of a Medical Officer of Health, at their option, or a Sanitary Inspector, preferably a Chief Sanitary Inspector. Appointment of a Medical Officer of Health has to be approved of by the Divisional Officer in prior consultation with the Director of Public Health and of Sanitary Inspectors by the Assistant Director of Public Health concerned. The municipalities of Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji have taken advantage of this offer.

Welfare Departments. PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT. District Health Scheme.

Especially after the World War II, the activities of the Public Health Department were expanded in all districts. The health services maintained in rural areas in 1955 are as under:—

Serial No.	Designation.		No. of posts.
(1)	District Health Officers	...	1
(2)	Epidemic Medical Officers	...	1
(3)	Sanitary Inspectors	...	5
(4)	Sanitary Sub-Inspectors	...	...
(5)	Vaccinators	...	22—1 Reserve vaccinator
(6)	Paid Candidate Vaccinators	...	...
(7)	Mukadams	...	8
(8)	Mazdoors	...	24
(9)	Attendants	...	29

1. *Primary Health Units*: (*at 12 places*)—

(1)	Health Visitors or Nurse-midwives.		14
(2)	Midwives	...	6
(3)	Trained Dais	...	6
(4)	Sanitary Sub-Inspectors	...	1
(5)	Mukadams	...	...
(6)	Mazdoors	...	...
(7)	Woman Attendants	..	12

2. *Maternity and Child Health Centres*—

Staff: 4 Nurse Midwives.

Ministerial establishment including Senior Clerks, Junior Clerks, Officer Peons and Chowkidars has been included).

In Urban areas, there are in all—

1 Medical Officer of Health (Kolhapur town),
7 Sanitary Inspectors (6 Kolhapur plus 1 Ichalkaranji),
1 Chief Sanitary Inspector (1 Kolhapur),
2 Vaccinators (1 Kolhapur and 1 Ichalkaranji),

Vaccination.

In Kolhapur district, the vaccinators and their attendants are all Government servants.

No regular malaria control scheme exists for the district, but staff from other districts is deputed to this district for DDT spraying work.

As a part of B. C. G. Immunisation and T. B. Control programme, the BCG Units have covered the district and have carried out 635,414 testings, out of which 237,721 have been found positive, 254,186 negative and 143,507 have been vaccinated with BCG.

Mobile Hospital Unit.

For isolation and treatment of cases of infectious diseases in severely affected areas, a mobile hospital unit was formed in 1947 for the Southern Registration District as a whole with its headquarters at Belgaum. Due to Reorganisation of States in 1956, the headquarters of the unit have been located at Poona

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temporarily pending fixation of their revised jurisdiction. This hospital, equipped with staff, trucks, tents and furniture and other materials for 50 beds is kept ready to move to any affected place and start functioning at short notice. In non-epidemic period the hospital staff help the primary health centres in Poona district in its activities like rural medical relief, maternity and child health etc.

Chief Diseases.

The table below gives the figures of deaths due to different diseases in Kolhapur district from 1950 to 1955:—

KOLHAPUR DISTRICT.

DEATHS DUE TO CHIEF DISEASES FROM 1950-55.

Name of diseases.	Number of deaths.				
	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955
1	2	3	4	5	6
Cholera	71	40	940	7	6
Small-pox .. .	13	6	4	22	5
Plague .. .	..	..	..	..	..
Enteric Fever .	110	115	121	115	116
Measles	103	304	243	405	387
Malaria . ..	587	575	534	435	338
Other Fevers	6,202	6,134	6,812	5,620	5,794
Dysentery	154	92	182	85	93
Cerebro Spinal Fever ..	..	..	11	21	18
Diarrhœa	1,264	1,234	1,510	1,095	1,269
Pneumonia	270	268	281	265	270
Phthisis	1,066	1,045	1,070	880	938
Influenza	..	..	..	1	..
Whooping cough .	184	184	137	82	76
Mumps	.	.	..	..	..
Other respiratory diseases	1,475	1,479	1,931	1,714	1,902
Diphtheria	1	18	25	26	27
Deaths from child-birth ..	239	205	81	157	197
Chicken-pox	..	1	..	2	..
Leprosy	40	57	80	67	60
Cancer	45	51	54	59	62
Injuries	330	284	312	357	347
Other causes	6,677	6,912	8,304	6,788	7,401

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PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

Chief Diseases.

Vital Statistics.

The compilation of births and deaths for Kolhapur district is done in the office of the Director of Public Health along with that of other districts in the State. In the municipal areas, the municipalities concerned maintain registers of births and deaths and forward monthly extracts to the Director of Public Health. In the rural areas, the birth and death registers are maintained by the village officers and monthly extracts are sent by them to the taluka officers for transmission to the Director of Public Health.

Epidemics.

In urban areas, it is the statutory duty of the municipalities to provide special medical aid and accommodation for the sick in times of epidemic diseases and to take such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak or to suppress and prevent the recurrence of the disease. In rural areas the primary responsibilities for dealing with outbreaks of epidemics rests with the District Local Boards. According to Government Resolution, General Department, No. 1773/33, dated 23rd April 1945, every District Local Board is required to set apart annually a lump sum equal to the average of the amount spent during the preceding three years for expenditure on epidemics. A grant is also placed at the disposal of the Director of Public Health for emergency measures. The Collector is empowered to take action in consultation with the District Health Officer and the Assistant Director of Public Health if he finds the measures taken by the Board are inadequate. The District Local Board will be helped in its task by the District Health Officer and his nucleus staff under him and the Mobile Hospital Units. The services of dispensary medical officers and subsidised medical practitioners are also utilised.

Government also pays 50 per cent. grant-in-aid to local bodies on their expenditure on anti-epidemic measures provided the local bodies have spent 10 per cent. in the case of District Local Boards and 4 per cent. in the case of municipalities of their annual income on medical and public health measures excluding anti-epidemic ones.

Small-pox.

From the number of deaths due to small-pox it will be seen that the severity of this disease has been considerably reduced during recent years. Government policy regarding small-pox control is to protect the population by vaccination which is offered free to the public by Government and local bodies. Segregation of the patients is attempted only in large towns where hospital facilities are available. Disinfection of infected houses and clothes, etc. is also carried out to educate the people as to how to protect themselves against small-pox. Since 1954, mass vaccination drive has been started according

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PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.
Epidemics.
Small-pox.

to which three months in each year mass revaccination programme is undertaken in one-fifth of the population and during the remaining nine months of the year, primary vaccination work is done in the same one-fifth of the population. In Kolhapur district there are twenty-three vaccinators appointed by Government but their pay and allowances are partly paid by the Board in the form of fixed contributions. There are also two Government vaccinators in the Kolhapur municipal area.

Plague.

The entire State including Kolhapur district has been free from plague for the last six-seven years.

Cholera.

Kolhapur is one of the districts in the State where severe cholera epidemics break out at intervals. During the last five years, the incidence was low except in 1953 during which year it was widespread and severe. Due to the establishment of the District Health Scheme in the district, anti-cholera measures are now carried out on a large scale immediately there is an outbreak of the disease. Protection of water supplies, mass immunisation of people by anti-cholera inoculations and isolation and treatment of cholera cases in temporary isolation hospitals in the affected areas are the measures employed to combat cholera epidemics. On the occurrence of an outbreak of cholera in a village, the nearest dispensary medical officer is deputed by the Mamlatdar to adopt preliminary measures and send a report to the District Health Officer who sends the public health staff to continue measures if the situation so demands and also visits the affected villages himself. Temporary Medical Officers or trained inoculators are appointed, if the epidemic assumes a severe form, to assist the local public health staff and the District Local Board staff.

Malaria.

Kolhapur is one of the hypoendemic district for malaria in Bombay State and consequently the district was excluded from the DDT spraying till 1956. During 1956, the district was taken-up in entirety for malaria control work. The DDT spraying work was directly controlled by the District Health Officer, Kolhapur. All areas receive one round of DDT spraying only. The season of sraying is generally from June to August. About 64,000 lbs of DDT 75 per cent. wettable powder are consumed in the rural areas of the district and about 7,000 lbs. of DDT (Technical) are consumed in Kolhapur town.

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. FAIRS.

There are certain important fairs held in Kolhapur district which attract people from outside. The following table gives some particulars about these fairs :—

Name of the Fair.	Taluka and place of Fair.	Period of the Fair.	Attendance (Approximate).
1. Kagal ..	Kagal-Kagal ..	Mohamedan (Kartik Sud 1 to 6).	10,000
2. Shri Bhairav Sasgiri.	Gadhinglaj-Samangad.	Magh Vad 14 to Phalgun Sud 1.	10,000
3. Vishali .	Shirol-Khidrapur ..	Paush Vad 30 ..	10,000
4. Karwir ..	Kolhapur-Karwir ..	Aswin Sud 5 ..	15,000
5. Jyotiba ..	Panhala-Wadi Ratnagiri.	Chaitra Sud 15 to Vad 4.	1,00,000
6. Shri Gurudwadashi.	Shirol-Narsinghwadi ..	Aswin Vad 12 ..	10,000
7. Shri Dattajayanti ..	Do. ..	Margashirsha Sud 15 ..	10,000
8 Mahashivratri .	Do. .	Mahashivratri, Magh Vad 14.	10,000
9. Shri Vithai Birdeo.	Hatkanangale-Phaltan-Kodoli.	Aswin Vad 6 to 8 ..	10,000
10. Vishali ..	Karvir-Shinganapur ..	Paush Vad 30 ..	20,000
11. Agricultural and Cattle Show.	Shirol-Kurundwad ..	February-March (4 to 5 days).	15,000

As the above fairs are major ones, elaborate sanitary arrangements are generally made. Fairs at Kagal-Samangad and Khidrapur are managed by Government with the co-operation of local bodies and the remaining by the local bodies concerned with the help of the Public Health Department. In order to meet the expenditure on sanitary arrangements a pilgrim fee is levied. Other fairs which are of minor importance i e., attracting less than 10,000 pilgrims, are managed by revenue authorities with the help of the Public Health Department. At such fairs no pilgrim fee is levied.

Famine Relief.

When famine and scarcity conditions are declared to exist in the district, the District Health Officer is under the general orders of the Collector in so far as medical and sanitary arrangements on scarcity and famine relief works are concerned.

MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE.

These activities have been started in Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks, *vide* paragraph following.

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MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE.

Under the Community Development Programme, twelve primary health units, as shown below, have been established in the Kolhapur district during 1956-57 :—

Taluka.		Primary Health Centre.
Karvir	...	Bhuya ; Sangrul ; Shiroli ; Valivade.
Radhanagari	...	Rashivade ; Walve Bk.
Panhala	...	Satave ; Bajar Bhogaon ; Kotoli Kale.
Hatkanangale	...	Pargaon.
Kagal	...	Sidhnerli.

These primary health units provide integrated curative and preventive medical services in the areas served, viz. 20,000 population each. Special emphasis is given on maternity and child health activities. A maternity home is provided at the headquarters of each unit.

Maternity and Child Health Centres were established at Gargoti and Kurundwad during the years 1955-56 and 1956-57 respectively. A staff of two nurse midwives is provided. They are attached to the existing dispensaries. They serve a population of 20,000 each in connection with maternity and child health activities. No maternity home is provided.

Health propaganda.

For Kolhapur district no separate organisation is maintained. The propaganda van at headquarters and the Sanitary Inspectors, Sanitary Sub-Inspectors and Vaccinators during the course of their tour carry out health propaganda.

THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS fall within the administrative control of the Labour and Social Welfare Department. The Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, is the head of all such offices. Consequent upon the re-organisation of States, areas of Saurashtra and Kutch States, eight districts of Vidarbha and five districts of Marathwada were integrated with the Bombay State. Officers dealing with labour matters in these areas, therefore, came under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Commissioner of Labour has now under him the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Admn.), Bombay, two Deputy Commissioners of Labour (one each at Bombay and Ahmedabad), Senior Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Rajkot and the Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Jamnagar, Nagpur and Aurangabad, the Chief Inspector of Factories, the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances and the Government Labour Officers. The Commissioner of Labour performs the satutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act and supervises and co-ordinates working of the abovementioned offices under his control.

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Welfare Departments.
THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

On the 1st March, 1953, the office of the Government Labour Officer, Bombay which was a separate office till then, was merged with the office of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. There are seven Assistant Labour Officers in Bombay and District Labour Officers at Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat, Jalgaon, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Porbandar, Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Nanded, Aurangabad and three District Labour Officers at Nagpur and a Senior Labour Officer at Aurangabad.

The Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Admn.), Bombay is responsible for the administration of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act (XI of 1946), the Industrial Disputes Act (XIV of 1947), the Indian Trade Unions Act (XVI of 1926) and the Collection of Statistics Act, 1953. Under him are nine Assistant Commissioners of Labour (Administration) working in Bombay and one in Ahmedabad. Conciliation in labour disputes arising in Surat district is attended to by one of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour in Bombay who has been notified as Conciliator under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and by the District Labour Officer at Kolhapur who has been notified as Conciliation Officer under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947

One of the Assistant Commissioners (Administration), Bombay, has been appointed as Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and has jurisdiction over the whole of Bombay State except the areas of Marathawada, Vidarbha, Saurashtra and Kutch. An Assistant Registrar has also been appointed and has been invested with all the powers of Registrar under the Act. The Registrar's work falls under the following heads, viz., (*a*) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (*b*) registration of unions; (*c*) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (*d*) registration of agreement, settlements, submissions and awards; and (*e*) maintenance of a list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Administration) has been notified as Registrar of Trade Unions for the State of Bombay under the Indian Trade Unions Act, and he is assisted in his work by Assistant Commissioners stationed at Bombay. The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes registration of trade unions under the Act, the registration of amendments in the constitution of the unions, and preparation of the annual report on the working of the Act in the State.

CHAPTER 17. Welfare Departments. THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

In Kolhapur district, there were in 1957, four unions registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act as representative unions. The details about the same are given below :—

Serial No.	Name of the Union.	Membership.	Industry.	Local Area.
1	Ichalkaranji Girni Kamgar Samiti, Ichalkaranji.	236	Cotton textile.	Hatkanangale taluka.
2	Bank Employees' Union, Kolhapur.	106	Banking	Karvir taluka and Shirol taluka.
3	Kolhapur Sugar Mill Kamgar Union, Kolhapur.	531	Sugar ..	Karvir taluka.
4	Shahu Mill Kamgar Sangh, Kolhapur.	525	Cotton textile.	Karvir taluka.

One Joint Committee is registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act in the district.

The Office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Information) which performed the following functions has with effect from 1st April 1953, been merged with the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Administration), Bombay :—

(1) Compilation and publication of the Consumers' Price Index Numbers for Working Class for Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Jalgaon.

(2) Conducting socio-economic enquiries into conditions of labour.

(3) Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc., in particular.

(4) Collection of statistics under the Bombay Industrial Statistics (Labour) Rules, 1951.

(5) Publication of two monthlies, viz., the "Labour Gazette" and the "Industrial Court Reporter."

The Labour Officer.

A Labour Officer has been posted at Kolhapur to be in charge of Kolhapur, North Satara, South Satara and Ratnagiri districts. He is a Class II Gazetted Officer and belongs to a general State Service. The Office of the Labour Officer, Kolhapur was opened in the year 1950, consequent upon the merger of the former princely States of Kolhapur and others in Southern Maratha countries in the then Bombay State. He works under the Government Labour Officer, Bombay and the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Labour Officer is appointed primarily to implement the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, which is a State Act and is also notified as an Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act,

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THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.
The Labour Officer.

1948, and also under the Payment of Wages Act. In addition, he has been appointed as an Additional Inspector of Factories in respect of certain sections pertaining to the welfare provisions under the Factories Act. The Labour Officer, Kolhapur, is also notified as a Conciliation Officer under the Industrial Disputes Act and having his jurisdiction over the districts of Kolhapur, North Satara and South Satara. The powers conferred and the duties imposed on a Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not restricted to any particular section under that Act; but are scattered throughout the whole Act. However, the powers and the duties of the Labour Officer are mainly given in Chapter VI and Section 34 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. For the purpose of exercising his powers and performing his duties, a Labour Officer may enter any place used for any industry, any place used as the office of any union and any premise provided by an employer for the residence of his employees and he is entitled to call for and inspect all relevant documents which may be deemed necessary for the due discharge of his duties and powers under this Act. He has also the power of convening a meeting of employees for any of the purposes of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, on the premises where the employees are employed and he may require the employer to affix a written notice of the meeting at such conspicuous place as he may order. A Labour Officer is charged with the duty of watching the interest of employees and promoting harmonious relations between the employers and the employees, of investigating the grievances of employees who are not members of the Approved Union and of members of an Approved Union on the request of such a union, of representing to the employers such grievances and of making recommendations to them in respect of the same and of reporting to the State Government the existence of any industrial dispute of which no notice of change has been given together with the names of the parties thereto. A Labour Officer, in certain contingencies, acts as a representative of the employees if so authorised by them and where a Representative Union does not exist and he is not authorised also by the employees to act as their representative and where the employees themselves do not elect their own representative from amongst them, then he becomes their representative *suo motu*. In short, a Labour Officer has to work as a sort of residual representative of the employees. He has also to help the Representative and the Approved Union. He has always to be in touch with the changes in the labour situation in the undertakings in the various industries covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and to report major and important incidents to his superior officers and Government. He intervenes whenever there is a stoppage or strike and gives legal guidance and advice to the employees involved in such incidents and he does likewise in respect of employers in connection with the closures and lock-outs which may not be

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT. The Labour Officer.

legal. In short, he explains the correct position under the law to the parties concerned with a view to seeing that any illegal action on their part is rectified by them without any delay. A Labour Officer is probably the only executive officer envisaged under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act by virtue of powers conferred on him under Section 82 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act under which, except the person effected by any offence under the Act, who can make a complaint to the Labour Court, the Labour Court constituted under the said Act cannot take cognisance of any offence except on a report in writing by the Labour Officer of facts constituting such offence. In addition to the above, a Labour Officer can also start proceedings in a Labour Court under Section 79 read with section 78 of the said Act. In short, a Labour Officer has been given a very heavy, onerous and heterogenous duties and responsibilities. He also informally advises the trade unions whenever they ask his advice on labour matters. For the purposes of certification of standing orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, a Labour Officer helps the Commissioner of Labour who is the Certifying Officer under that Act in holding elections of the workmen concerned for the purpose of getting the names of their representatives who are to be associated with the discussions when the draft standing orders are to be certified. During the year 1956 the Labour Officer, Kolhapur, handled 29 disputes in his capacity as Conciliation Officer under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947. In addition he investigated into 498 individual complaints in his capacity as Labour Officer.

Labour Welfare Centre.

Welfare centres run by the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Welfare), Bombay were taken over with effect from 1st July 1953, by the Bombay Labour Welfare Board which was constituted under the Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1953. There are in all fifty Labour Welfare Centres in the State. These Welfare Centres are classified into four types viz., A, B, C and D. A network of these centres with recreational and instructional facilities for workers and their families all over the important industrial areas in the State provides among other things, entertainment by visual aid, exhibitions, dramas, music, indoor and outdoor games and instructions on accident prevention, first aid, hygiene and anti-drink propaganda. The 'A' type centres are located in spacious, well planned buildings and are equipped with gymnasia, wrestling arenas, shower-baths, open spaces for games and sports and children's play-grounds. The 'B' type centres are more or less on a similar but smaller scale, while 'C' and 'D' type centres are housed in hired buildings with provision for indoor games and facilities for out-door recreational activities.

Kolhapur has a 'C' type centre and the same was started in August 1956.

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT. Industrial Arbitration and Adjudication.

The Court of Industrial Arbitration (or the Industrial Court as it is shortly called), Bombay, as constituted under section 10 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, has jurisdiction over the Kolhapur district. The duties and powers of the Industrial Court are detailed in Chapter XIII of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. The Labour Court at Bombay exercises jurisdiction over the Kolhapur district. This Court is presided over by a Labour Court Judge and enjoys such powers as are conferred upon him under Sections 78 to 86 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Wage Boards.

There are three Wage Boards appointed for the State, one each for Cotton Textiles, Silk Textiles and Sugar Industries. The Wage Boards are to decide such disputes as are referred to them by the State Government under Sections 86C and 86KK of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act (LXXIX of 1948) has been applied in the district to the Kolhapur and Ichalkaranji Municipal Areas.

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme has not been extended to the district.

Working class cost of living index.

There is no Consumers' Price Index Number for working class for Kolhapur or for any other centre in the district.

Factory Department.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control of the technical side of the work of the department over the whole State. The department is responsible mainly for the administration of the Factories Act (LXIII of 1948), but the administration of the following Acts has also been assigned to it:—

(1) The Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936).

(2) The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925)—section 9. regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories.

(3) The Employment of Children Act (XXVI of 1938).

(4) The Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1929).

(5) The Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

The department has a sub-office at Kolhapur, in charge of a Junior Inspector of Factories, an Officer belonging to the General State Services. The jurisdiction of this office extends over the districts of Kolhapur, South Satara, Ratnagiri, and also had the jurisdiction over the districts of Belgaum, N. Kanara, etc. before State Reorganisation. The full time Inspectoral staff stationed at Kolhapur at present

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THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.
Factory Department.

consists of one Junior Inspector of Factories and one Inspector of Notified Factories. They are responsible for the enforcement of the Factories Act and the Rules made thereunder throughout the areas assigned to them, every Inspector being allotted a certain number of factories for the purpose of inspection. Under section 8(4) of the Factories Act, the District Magistrate of Kolhapur is also an Inspector of Factories for the district of Kolhapur. In addition, all Sub-Divisional Magistrates, Mamlatdars, Mahalkaries, the Officers of the Public Health Department, Government Labour Officers within the limit of their respective jurisdiction have been appointed as additional Inspectors of Factories for certain provisions of the Act. Similarly, the Civil Surgeon in charge of Chhatrapati Pramila Raje Hospital, Kolhapur, Medical Officer in charge of Kagal dispensary, Kagal taluka; Medical Officer in charge of Murgud dispensary, Bhudargad taluka; Medical Officer in charge of Ajra Dispensary, Ajra mahal; Medical Officer in charge of Panhala dispensary, Panhala mahal; Medical Officer in charge of Gadhinglaj dispensary, Gadhinglaj taluka; Medical Officer in charge of Shirol dispensary, Shirol taluka; Medical Officer in charge of Shahuwadi dispensary, Shahuwadi taluka; Medical Officer in charge Radhanagari dispensary, Radhanagari taluka; have been appointed as Certifying Surgeons. Under Rules made in accordance with Section 9 of the Factories Act, a full time Inspector (but not the District Magistrate or an additional Inspector) is empowered to prosecute, conduct or defend before a Court any complaint or other proceeding arising under the Act or in discharge of his duties as an Inspector. Full time Inspectors are also responsible for the enforcement of the other enactments with the administration of which the Factory Department has been entrusted. Their activities also extend to securing for labourers welfare amenities, such as education, recreation and sports, co-operative societies and housing.

Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923) the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation Bombay, had been given exclusive jurisdiction over Bombay and Bombay Suburban District. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western and Central Railways and Hydro Electric Companies under the management of Messrs. Tata Hydro-Electric Agencies Ltd., arising in the State irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State. For the remaining areas of the State, Civil Judges have been appointed ex-officio Commissioners for their respective jurisdiction. The Judge of the Court of Small Causes, Poona and the Judge, Labour Court, Ahmedabad are the ex-officio Commissioners for the respective districts. The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle cases with insurance companies and other firms

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THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.
Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

which have their head offices in Bombay City. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under Section 20(2) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the ex-officio Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised:—

(a) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (1) and (2) of section 8;

(b) to issue notices to and to receive applications from claimants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and

(c) to receive agreements for registration under section 28, wherever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner concerned notifies the ex-officio Commissioner.

Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under Section 8(1) has been received, and other applications provided for in Section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned if the accident occurs in the Kolhapur district. Notices to employers under Section 10-A, requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the district is issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner and reports of fatal accidents made under Section 10-B are received by him. If, after notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under Section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay, the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned.

Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the ex-officio Commissioners concerned.

Payment of Wages Act.

The Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has been appointed Authority under the Payment of Wages Act for Greater Bombay and the Judge, First Labour Court, Bombay as additional Authority under the Payment of Wages Act, in addition to his own duties, to hear claims arising out of deductions from wages or delay in payment of wages of persons employed or paid in the Greater Bombay, the Civil Judges being Authorities for the areas within their respective jurisdiction except for the Ahmedabad and Jalgaon talukas for which the Judges of the Labour Courts have been appointed. The Judge, Court of Small Causes, Poona, is the Authority for his jurisdiction.

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Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department.

The Department of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay State, but the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances has complete control of the technical side of the work of the department over the whole State. The functions of the Boiler Inspectorate are to inspect steam boilers and their accessories annually and register new boilers and to grant working certificates thereof in order to ensure their safe working. The department has a strength of fourteen inspectors out of whom seven are stationed in Bombay (Five for Boiler Inspection work and two for Smoke Nuisances work), two are stationed at Ahmedabad to carry out Boiler Inspection work and Smoke Nuisances work in Ahmedabad and the boiler inspection work in the North Gujarat Division, two are stationed at Nagpur to look after the boiler inspection work in the Vidarbha region, two are stationed at Rajkot and Bhavnagar to look after the boiler inspection work in Saurashtra and one at Aurangabad for the boiler inspection work in the Marathwada region.

The Inspector in charge of the Southern Division, having his head-quarters in Bombay, carries out the boiler inspection work in the Kolhapur district.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

The Department of Prohibition and Excise. Prohibition and Excise Organization.

SINCE THE INTRODUCTION OF COMPLETE PROHIBITION IN THE FORMER AREAS OF THE STATE OF BOMBAY from 1st April, 1950, the former Department of Excise has come to be designated as the Department of Prohibition and Excise. The officer charged with the administration of this department in Kolhapur district is the Collector of Kolhapur. In relation to this department, he is responsible to the Director of Excise and Prohibition, Bombay State. He is invested with various powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949) and also exercises power under the Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930), the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of 1936) and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act (XXIX of 1952). Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibitions or restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licences, permits and passes under the Act.

The District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Kolhapur assists the Collector and is in charge of the actual work of the department in the district. The District Inspector, Kolhapur has under him two Sub-Inspectors, both stationed at Kolhapur. The district is divided into two ranges each in charge of a separate Sub-Inspector. One range consists of the talukas of Karvir, Kagal, Gadhingalaj, Bhudargad, Ajra, and Chandgad, and the other range consists of the talukas of Hatkanangle,

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Shirol, Panhala, Shahuwadi, Radhanagari and Bavda. There is one Sub-Inspector with headquarters at Kolhapur for Drugs control work of the district. There are also two Sub-Inspectors for the Rectified Spirit Distillery of Messrs. Kolhapur Sugar Mills Ltd. The District Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors have also been invested with certain powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act.

Medical Boards.

In each taluka, a medical board consisting usually of two registered medical practitioners (one Government or semi-Government official and the other non-official) has been formed. The functions of the board are to examine any person who applies for a permit to possess opium, ganja or bhang for personal consumption or for an increase in the existing quota, and, on examination to issue a medical certificate to such person if it is satisfied that the applicant requires the drug as a medical necessity.

There is another medical board for foreign liquor permits on health grounds. The Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur, is in charge of the board and examines and grants certificates to applicants from the Kolhapur City. In the rest of the district, the medical officers in charge of the Government or municipal dispensaries do the above duties and send the certificates through the Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur, for his counter signature.

Military Personnel.

In the case of individual military personnel, the quota of foreign liquor is allotted by the Station Staff Officer on a scale commensurate with their rank, and the same can be purchased from the Military Vendor's Licences only. In the case of military messes, requisitions are issued by the Station Staff Officer and liquor is issued by the Military Vendor's Licences on the strength of transport permits issued by the Prohibition and Excise Department.

Enforcement Work.

The Police Department is the chief agency to deal with detection, investigation and prosecution of offences under Prohibition Act. Though officers of the Prohibition and Excise Department, of and above the rank of Inspector have been invested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on information of the commission of offences and hand over the cases detected by them to the Police for investigation. The Home Guard Organisation also assists the Police in this work. Under Section 134 of the Prohibition Act, village officers, village servants useful to Government, officers of other departments of the State Government, and officers and servants of local authorities are bound not only to give information to the Police of breaches of the provisions of the Act which may come to their knowledge, but also to prevent the commission of breaches of the Act about which they may have knowledge. Under Section 133, officers and

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servants of local authorities are further bound to assist any Police officer or person authorised to carry out the provisions of the Act. Under section 135, occupiers of lands and buildings, land loards of estates, owners of vehicles, etc., are bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or manufacture of any liquor or intoxicating drug to a Magistrate, Prohibition Officer or Police Officer as soon as it comes to their knowledge.

All revenue officers of and above the rank of Mamlatdar or Mahalkari, all Magistrates and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Exercise, of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been authorised under Section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdiction to arrest without a warrant, any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any article of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes and detains any article, has to forward such person or article without unnecessary delay to the officer-in-charge of the nearest police station.

Effect of Prohibition.

As the Kolhapur State was merged into the State of Bombay from 1st March 1949, the excise laws of the Bombay State were made applicable to the Kolhapur district with effect from 1st May 1949. A comparison is given of the consumption of liquor and intoxicating drugs in the year 1950-51 (the year in which complete prohibition was in force) and 1955-56:—

	1950–51.	1955–56.
Country liquor (in gallons) ...	Nil.	Nil.
Spirits (in dozen bottles) ...	57	100
Wines (in dozen bottles) ...	......	......
Beer (in dozen bottles) ...	... ..	......
Ganja (in maunds and seers)...	3-31	0-14
Bhang (in maunds and seers). .	0-09	0-04
Opium (in maunds and seers).	1-02	0-09

The total revenue which was Rs. 1,17,149 in 1950-51 was only Rs 70,268 in 1955-56.

Kinds of permits.

Various permits were granted for possession, use, etc. of foreign liquor. These were:—

Foreign Liquor.

(1) *Emergency Permits.*—These permits were at first issued to families only, for emergent purposes. This permit can, since 22nd October, 1952, be issued in the name of any member of the family, but it cannot be granted to more than one member of a household at any one time. A holder of this permit is authorised to purchase, possess, use or consume 6⅔ ozs. of brandy or rum or 13⅓ ozs. of champagne during a period of six months. The number of emergency permits issued in 1955-56 was 30 and in 1956-57, six.

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Foreign Liquor.

(2) *Health Permits.*—These permits are granted on grounds of health to the applicants after their medical examination by the Civil Surgeon, Kolhapur for a quantity recommended by him. The maximum quantity admissible under the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953 is two units.* During the year 1950-51 and from April 1951 to 19th September 1951, these permits were granted for a period of six months only. From 20th September 1951, these permits can be issued for a period of one year if recommended by the Medical Board to persons who are over sixty years and in the case of persons over seventy years the permits can be granted upto a year without medical examination by the Medical Board. A permit-holder desiring to renew the permit has to make a fresh application. The number of health permits issued in 1955-56 was 236 and in 1956-57, 212.

(3) *Temporary Resident's Permits.*—These permits are issued to persons born and brought-up or domiciled in a country outside India where liquor is usually consumed. Temporary resident's permits are granted for a maximum quantity of four units per month. They are granted upto the end of the financial year. A permit-holder desiring to renew the permit has to make a fresh application.

(4) *Visitor's Permits.*—Any person visiting the State of Bombay for a period not more than a week is granted a visitor's permit upto a quantity of one unit and the permit is renewable for a maximum period of one month.

(5) *Tourist's Permits.*—Any foreign tourists who is eligible for a temporary resident's permit and possesses a tourist introduction card or tourist visa is granted a tourist's permit for a maximum period of one month for a quantity of one unit per week.

Toddy.

Possession, use, etc., of toddy is completely prohibited.

Denatured Spirit.

Permits for possession and use of denatured spirit up to a maximum quantity of two bottles per month are granted for domestic purposes.

Country liquor and Wine.

Authorisations for the use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to persons of certain communities. viz., Christians, Parsees and Jews.

Ganja, Bhang and Opium.

Ganja, Bhang or Opium is allowed to a person for his personal consumption only, under a permit which granted on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board, the maximum quantity allowed under a permit being 15 tolas

* One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle of 26⅔ ozs. of spirits, or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume, or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume.

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in the cases of *ganja* or *bhang* and 7½ tolas in the case of *opium*. In 1955-56, 91 permits were issued for *opium*, 83 for *ganja* and 3 for *bhang*. In 1956-57 the respective numbers were 124, 79 and 11.

There are also rules governing the possession, use, transport, sale, etc. of dangerous drugs, mhowra-flowers, molasses, rectified spirit and absolute alcohol for industrial, medical and similar purposes.

Neera.

The Bombay Village Industries Board is entrusted with the working of the "neera and palm products scheme". It is carrying out its neera and palm-gur work through co-operative societies or suitable institutions of constructive social workers such as (1) Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, (2) Sarvodaya Centres and (3) Ashrams.

There is a supervisor stationed in each area of *neera* extraction who supervises the tapping and collection of *neera* from trees. The *neera* collected is transported to various sale centres. There is a manager at each centre, who supervises the sale of *neera* with the help of the salesmen. The manufacture of *gur* from *neera* is allowed only at the centre under the supervision of the Van supervisor.

Prohibition Committee.

A Prohibition Sub-Committee consisting of ten members has been set-up by the District Development Board Kolhapur. The Chairman of the Prohibition Sub-Committee is from the non-official members of the Board and the District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Kolhapur, is its Secretary. The functions of this Committee are to advise the Prohibition and Excise Department in carrying out the prohibition work and to make suggestions in matters pertaining to vigilance, prohibition propaganda, publicity, recreation activities, etc.

Sanskar Kendras.

There are three *Sanskar Kendras* in the Kolhapur district and they are at (i) Murgud, (ii) Gadhinglaj and (iii) Turkewadi. All the three *Sanskar Kendras* are managed by private institutions, but are partly subsidised by the department. These *Sanskar Kendras* conduct recreation activities for weaning the people from the drink habit.

THE BACKWARD CLASS DEPARTMENT

THE BACKWARD CLASS. History.

THE BACKWARD CLASS DEPARTMENT WAS CREATED in 1931 as a result of the recommendations made in 1930 by the Depressed Classes and Aboriginal Tribes Committee. The classification recommended by the Committee and adopted by Government includes within backward classes persons of three different categories, viz., (1) untouchables classed as "scheduled classes"; (2) aboriginal and hill tribes; and (3) such other classes of persons as Government may class as

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"other backward classes". As soon as any caste or section of the population ceases to require protection or aid it may be removed from the list of backward classes and it will then cease to have any special connection with the Backward Class Department.

The communities under Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are approved by the President's order under the Constitution of India. The Constitution of India has also provided for special protection and encouragement to be given to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in view of their extremely backward condition. The population of backward classes in Kolhapur district as per 1951 Census was as follows :—

Scheduled Castes	1,39,075
Scheduled Tribes	214
Other Backward Classes	22,147
Total	1,61,436

It is the policy of Government to push on vigorously with the work of amelioration of backward classes so that the communities at present classified as backward may be assimilated into society on a common footing with others and they may make rapid progress in economic, social, cultural and other spheres, and conditions may be created in which they will cease to be backward.

The Central Government also gives liberal grants for this purpose under article 273 of the Constitution.

Organisation.

With the inauguration of the bilingual Bombay State, a new department of Labour and Social Welfare has been created which looks after the amelioration of backward classes. In addition to a separate Secretary, a post of Deputy Secretary has also been created in this department. The head of the department called as the Director of Backward Class Welfare, has his headquarters at Poona. He is assisted at headquarters by one Personal Assistant of the rank of Assistant Director of Backward Class Welfare. In addition, there are three Assistant Directors, all at the headquarters, one in charge of Education, another in charge of Lands and the third in charge of Economic matters. The posts are filled by transfer of suitable Class I or Class II officers of the Departments of Education, Co-operation and Revenue. There are also twenty-three Backward Class Welfare Officers in the old Bombay State area each in charge of a single district. These officers are of the status of the Second Grade Mamlatdars. There are also two regional Nomadic Tribes Welfare Officers, one for Maharashtra and the other for Gujarat, appointed specially for the welfare of nomadic tribes. They are of the status of Backward Class Welfare Officers. The department is not

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ordinarily entrusted with executive work, as its main function is co-ordination of the work of other departments concerned with backward class welfare work. The execution of a programme in any particular field is the responsibility of the department concerned with that field and its officers. The Director of Backward Class Welfare seeks to co-ordinate the work of the various departments concerned in accordance with the directives of Government and the relevant provisions of the Constitution and collects such information and statistics from the departments as are required by Government.

The uplift of backward classes is sought to be achieved in many ways. First of all, special facilities are given to them for receiving education. For example, they get free studentships in Government as well as non-Government schools, and scholarships in arts and professional colleges and technical institutions. In addition, the Backward Class Department gives monetary help to poor and deserving students from the backward classes studying in secondary, collegiate, and technical institutions, by way of lump sum grants for the purchase of slates, books, tools, etc, and for payment of examination fees. A percentage is prescribed by Government for the admission to training institutions of men teachers from backward classes. In the case of women teachers, no percentage has been separately fixed, but if suitable women belonging to these classes are available for training, preference is given to them in the matter of admission to training colleges.

Voluntary agencies are encouraged by means of grant-in-aid to open special hostels for Backward Classes. There are eleven such hostels in the Kolhapur district run by the following voluntary agencies:—

Name of the Voluntary Agency.	Hostel conducted.
(1) Shri Devi Indumati Boarding House Committee, Kolhapur.	Shri Devi Indumati Boarding House, Kolhapur.
(2) Miss Clarke Hostel Committee, Kolhapur.	Miss Clarke Hostel, Kolhapur.
(3) Arya Samaj, Kolhapur ...	Arya Samaj Gurukul and Col. Woodhouse Anathalay, Kolhapur.
(4) Hind Kanya Chhatralaya Committee, Kolhapur.	Hind Kanya Vastigriha, Kolhapur.
(5) Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara.	Mahatma Gandhi Vastigriha, Rukadi.
(6) Deccan Backward Class Education Committee, Jaisingpur.	Mahatma Gandhi Vastigriha, Jaisingpur.
(7) Mahatma Gandhi Vastigriha Committee, Dhamod.	Mahatma Gandhi Vastigriha, Dhamod.

Name of the Voluntary Agency.	Hostel conducted.
(8) Shri Mauni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti.	Backward Class Hostel, Gargoti.
(9) Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Sanstha, Kolhapur.	Chhatrapati Vastigriha, Kolhapur.
(10) Deccan Backward Class Education Society, Jaisingpur.	Bharat Kanya Seva Sadan, Ichalkaranji.
(11) Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Kolhapur.	Mahatma Gurukul, Murgud.

The voluntary agencies are also encouraged to open and run *balwadis* for backward class children of tender age to teach them habits of cleanliness and ultimately to achieve their assimilation with other higher caste Hindu children. To solve effectively the problem of education of the backward classes, voluntary agencies are encouraged to open *sanskar kendras* for Scheduled castes, *ashram* schools for Scheduled Tribes and *ashram* schools-*cum-sanskar kendras* for ex-criminal tribes

There are in all thirty-three *sanskar kendras* in Bombay State and grants are paid to the voluntary agencies conducting them. There is only one *sanskar kendra* in the Kolhapur district, viz., the *sanskar kendra* at Kolhapur conducted by Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara.

There are, in all, twenty-two schools in the Bombay State as on 31st March 1957. No *ashram* school is, however, located in the Kolhapur district, as the population of Scheduled Tribes in the district is very small. The total number of *ashram* schools-*cum-sanskar kendras* in the Bombay State as on 31st March 1957, is five. No *ashram* school-*cum-sanskar kendra* is located in the Kolhapur district. Though one such *ashram* school was sanctioned in 1954-55, no voluntary agency came forward to run such an institution.

Secondly, reservation of posts is made for members of the backward classes in the public services. The following percentages of vacancies are reserved for members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes, in Class III and Class IV services and posts:—

Service or post.	Percentage of vacancies reserved.		
	Scheduled Castes.	Scheduled Tribes.	Other Backward Classes.
Class III	6	7	9
Class IV	7	9	11

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There is a collective reservation of vacancies in respect of the State (Gazetted) Services, viz., 12½ per cent. in respect of the backward classes as a whole. The above percentages represent the minimum number of vacancies to be filled in by the appointment of members of backward classes, but it is open to the appointing authorities to recruit members of backward classes in excess of these percentages, if they are otherwise considered suitable for such appointments *vis-a-vis* other candidates. Similar percentages are prescribed for recruitment of backward classes in the services of local bodies and institutions receiving Government grants-in-aid. Different percentages varying from 15 to 45 have been prescribed for appointment of members of backward classes as primary school teachers in the various districts in the State.

The maximum age-limits prescribed for appointment to Class III and IV services and posts under the relevant recruitment rules have been relaxed by five years, instead of three years as before, in favour of candidates belonging to backward classes.

Thirdly, special attention is devoted to provision of housing accommodation for backward classes. The Backward Class Department helps in providing housing sites for members of the scheduled classes by acquiring lands and disposing of the plots to individual members at a nominal occupancy price fixed in consultation with the Collector of the district.

The Post War Reconstruction Scheme No. 219 sanctioned by Government during 1948-49. has been sanctioned as one of the schemes under the Second Five-Year Plan. The scheme envisages grant of financial assistance to backward class families in the State to build their own houses through co-operative housing societies, etc. Under the scheme loans are granted to housing societies of backward class persons upto an amount not exceeding 75 per cent. of the estimated cost of houses, which is taken to be anywhere between Rs. 3,000 and Rs. 4,000 in industrial areas like Bombay, Ahmedabad. Poona and Sholapur; Rs. 2,000 in places having district or borough municipalities and in other areas, the estimated cost is fixed at Rs. 800, Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1.500 as the case may be. The loan is free of interest and is made repayable in twenty-five annual instalments. If a member of such a society is engaged in agricultural pursuits, an additional loan not exceeding 60 per cent. of the cost of a shed and barn estimated at not more than Rs. 100 is also made available to such a member for construction of a shed and barn. Subsidies are also granted to such societies to meet their cost of management, etc., at the rate of Rs. 10 per tenement for the first two years and, later on, at the rate of Rs. 5 per tenement till the entire Government loan is repaid. These societies are also granted loan free of cost for housing sites or for Government lands or, where

Government lands are not available Government subsidy equal to the cost of acquisition of private lands is made available to them. In industrial areas of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Poona and Sholapur 2½ gunthas of land are made available to a non-agricultural member, while in other areas only 1½ gunthas are given. Agricultural numbers get 3 gunthas each, in all the areas. A limit to the value of land is fixed at Rs. 5 per square yard in the four industrial cities. In other areas, the land should be of the value current in lower middle class localities and the excess costs, if any, should be borne by the societies.

This scheme has undergone a certain revision, as the concessions given under this scheme are now restricted to societies of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and ex-criminal tribes registered after the 14th August 1953. Housing societies of other backward classes registered after 14th August 1953, are eligible for concessions under the scheme only in genuine cases of hardships and with the special approval of Government. Such societies are, however, eligible for Government lands where available, in all cases.

Fourthly, the economic regeneration of the backward classes is promoted by various steps. With a view to improving the technique of the hereditary occupations of these classes, Government have sanctioned a number of peripatetic parties in the State on 31st March 1957, for imparting training to artisans and their children in various industrial subjects. Stipends are granted to students admitted to the schools. Backward class students are also awarded scholarships for taking industrial training at the various technical and industrial institutions.

There are various other measures adopted by Government for the economic uplift of backward classes. The chief among them are—

(a) Grant of cultivable waste lands to backward classes.

(b) Grant of forest lands to backward classes on agri-silvi system.

(c) Grant of tagai loans.

(d) Provision of special concessions to backward classes in respect of removal of timber, minor forest produce, cutting of fuel, etc.

(e) Grant of financial assistance for the formation of backward class co-operative farming societies.

(f) Grant of forest coupes to backward class forest labourers co-operative societies at an upset price.

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Special attention has also been devoted by the Government to the welfare of nomadic tribes and semi-nomadic tribes. Among backward classes, the nomadic and semi-nomadic communities are perhaps the most backward who could not take benefits of several schemes. As these communities have no settled way of life, and they go from place to place in search of living, and are steeped in illiteracy and poverty, they have not been able to take much advantage of the various schemes implemented by Government for the welfare of the backward classes. Government have included special schemes in the Second Five-Year Plan for the uplift of nomadic tribes and semi-nomadic tribes. Special schemes such as "Granting of loans" to the members of nomadic tribes for hawking business and amelioration of women of nomadic tribes by imparting training in crafts have been included in the above head; besides the usual schemes, viz., the opening of *ashram* schools, *balwadis* and *sanskar kendras,* free supply of books and slates; provision of hostel facilities; starting of industrial training centres; grant of financial assistance to labour contract societies and co-operative housing societies; appointment of propaganda workers and digging of wells, etc.; and grant of loans and subsidies to hereditary and trained artisans.

Fifthly, measures had been taken to ensure the social uplift of backward classes, especially of Harijans. The Bombay Harijan (Removal of Social Disabilities) Act (X of 1947), and the Bombay Harijan Temple Entry Act (XXXV of 1947), had been enacted with a view to bringing about complete removal of untouchability as far as public and civic rights were concerned. However, with the enactment of an All-India Act, known as "The Untouchability (Offences) Act, 1955", the Bombay Harijan Acts referred to above were repealed in the Bombay State with effect from 8th May 1955. The Bombay Devadasis Protection Act (X of 1934), has declared unlawful the performance of any ceremony having the effect of dedicating girls as *devadasis.* These unfortunate girls were usually members of the backward classes.

In addition, Government have enforced laws, such as the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, and the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1948. These Acts are of general application and are intended to safeguard the rights of agricultural tenants, to grant them privileges, and to provide relief to agricultural debtors. The backward class agriculturists, a large number of whom are tenants and agricultural debtors, can receive the benefits of these laws in the same manner as other tenants and agricultural debtors. In addition, officers of the Backward Class Department, in the normal course of their duties, help the backward class agriculturists to secure the relief available to them under these Acts.

The Backward Class Department has to see that the policy of Government is fully implemented in day to day administration.

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For advising the Backward Class Department in regard to its activities in the district, there is a special Backward Class Sub-Committee of the District Development Board for the district.

It is constituted of the Vice-Chairman of the District Development Board, a non-official nominated by Government, is to act as the Chairman of the Sub-committee of the Board. The Backward Class Welfare Officer of the district is the secretary of the sub-committee relating to the work of amelioration of backward classes. The functions of the Sub-committee are:—

(*a*) To provide information regarding the grievances and needs of Backward Classes.

(*b*) To form a channel of communication between the Director of Backward Class Welfare and backward classes.

(*c*) To give their opinions on questions referred to them by the Backward Class Board or the Director of Backward Class Welfare.

(*d*) To help backward classes by bringing their needs and grievances to the notice of the local officers concerned.

(*e*) To take suitable measures for the removal of untouchability and other disabilities and removal of harmful social customs among the various backward classes.

(*f*) To carry on propaganda work as far as possible among backward classes.

In addition to the work of ameliorating the condition of Backward Classes through the Government channel, voluntary agencies engaged in the task of amelioration of backward classes are given every possible encouragement. Several voluntary agencies, which are pioneers in this field, are recognised and given suitable grants-in-aid in the light of their activities. The main activity of these voluntary agencies is propaganda with a view to appraise backward classes of the civic rights and privileges provided by Government for them and also of the directives issued by Government for the amelioration of their condition. This propaganda is carried out by workers appointed by the voluntary agencies. Maintenance of hostels, establishment of *ashram* schools, *balwadis*, *sanskar kendras* are the other important activities sponsored by Government undertaken by voluntary agencies with Government aid. There are in the Bombay State, in all, sixteen voluntary agencies working for the amelioration of backward classes and recognised by the Backward Class Department. There are, also 111 propaganda workers in the State. Out of these, 3 propaganda workers are working in Kolhapur district, specially for Scheduled Castes.

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Welfare Departments. THE CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

THE CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

PRIOR TO 1950, THE RELIGIOUS AND CHARITABLE TRUSTS IN THE STATE were governed by various enactments, Central as well as Provincial, based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX of 1950), was passed, applicable to all public trusts irrespective of their religion. This Act defines "public trust" as "an express or constructive trust for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)".

Public Trusts affected.

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act has been made applicable to the following classes of public trusts with effect from 21st January 1952:—

(1) temples;

(2) *maths*;

(3) *wakfs*;

(4) public trusts other than, (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof;

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;

(6) *dharmadas*, i.e., any amounts which according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose;

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner, with headquarters at Bombay, has been appointed to administer the Act. The first Charity Commissioner was appointed on 14th August 1950. An Assistant Charity Commissioner has been appointed for the Kolhapur

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region, with headquarters at Kolhapur to administer the provisions of the Act. The Kolhapur region comprises the territories included in the districts of Kolhapur (including Chandgad taluka), North Satara, South Satara and Ratnagiri. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposes a duty on the trustees of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act, which include, (*a*) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (*b*) the gross average annual income of the trust property, and (*c*) the amount of the average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed by special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Acts are deemed to be registered under this Act. The total number of public trusts registered in the Kolhapur district for the period upto 31st March 1957 was 1,681 having assets amounting to Rs. 2,04,08,543. The annual income and expenditure of these trusts were Rs. 29,57,353 and Rs. 26,23,149 respectively.

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of two per cent. of the Public annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trust Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenue of the State. Public Trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 300 or less are exempted from the payment of contribution. Deduction from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest or depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but the persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points, such as whether accounts are maintained regularly and according to law and regularity, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds

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of the trust have been applied for an object or for purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

In order to afford relief to public trusts having small income, a Travelling Auditor has been appointed who is required to move from district to district and conduct an on-the-spot audit of the accounts of the public trusts having an annual income of Rs. 10,000 or less.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner who after due inquiry determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to a public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The Trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other form, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, if in the case of a public trust other than a trust for a religious purpose, it is not in the public interest expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out, wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created, an application can be made to the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application *cy pres* of the property or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or a direction is required for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner can file a suit in the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Bombay Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

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The Charity Commissioner may, with his consent, be appointed a trustee of a public trust, except of a public trust created for a religious purpose, by a Court or by the author of a trust, provided his appointment is made as a sole trustee. In regard to the public trusts created for religious purposes, while the Courts are not competent to appoint the Charity Commissioner to be a trustee of such a trust, if the author of a public trust for a religious purpose expresses his intention, or the person or the authority in whom the property of such public trust, vests, deems it expedient in public interest, the Court may appoint the Charity Commissioner with his consent to be the sole trustee of such public trust. The Charity Commissioner is, however, precluded from accepting the trusteeship of a public trust for religious purposes which involves the exercise by him as trustee of any religious observance or ceremony or the decision of any questions as to the religious merit or character of any individual or institution.

Registration.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors, can however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the *Official Gazette* every three years. District-wise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the *Bombay Government Gazette*.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State of Bombay, appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fines ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT.

IN KOLHAPUR DISTRICT, A COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT was started on 2nd October, 1952. It covered the whole of Karvir taluka, and Panhala mahal, 11 villages of Hatkanangale taluka, 13 of Kagal taluka, ten of Radhanagari taluka and nine of Bavada mahal, making a total of 251 villages. These villages had an area of 580·63 sq. miles and a population of 3,04,364. In the beginning an officer of Deputy Collector's grade was appointed as

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Project Officer and he was assisted by two Assistant Project Officers. After a year and a half, one of the Assistant Project Officers, who before his appointment was a social worker, was promoted as Project Officer; and he was assisted by two Assistant Project Officers of Mamlatdar's grade, drawn from the Revenue Department. The scheme was a great success. The villagers, though their economic condition was poor, contributed liberally both in cash and voluntary labour towards making the scheme a success. The project was closed on the 30th September, 1956 and converted into two National Extension Service Blocks, Karvir and Panhala. The Karvir Block consists of all the villages (106) of Karvir taluka (excluding Kolhapur city) and ten villages from Radhanagari taluka and 13 from Kagal taluka with an aggregate area of 299·43 sq. miles. The total population of the Karvir Block is 1,74,127. The Karvir Block has been allotted financial allocations of 2½ blocks on the basis of this population. The Panhala Block consists of 122 villages (102 of Panhala mahal, nine of Bavada mahal and 11 of Hatkanangale taluka), with an aggregate area of 281·20 sq. miles inhabited by 1,30,237 souls. It has been allotted financial allocations of two blocks on the basis of its population. The Mamlatdar of Karvir and the Mahalkari of Panhala are the respective ex-officio, Block Development Officers of the Karvir and Panhala Blocks. National Extension Service schemes have also been introduced in Bhudargad taluka from 1st April, 1957, and in Shirol taluka from 1st May, 1956. The area of Bhudargad taluka is 253·1 sq. miles and its population 65,929. It has been allotted financial allocation of one block on the basis of its population. Shirol has an area of 283·8 sq. miles and its population is 1,21,192. It is treated as 1¾ blocks for the purpose of financial allocation. The Mamlatdars of Bhudargad and Shirol are the ex-officio Block Development Officers for their respective talukas. The Prant Officer, Northern Division, is the Prant-*cum*-Project Officer for the blocks in Karvir, Panhala and Shirol, and the Prant Officer. Southern Division, is the Prant-*cum*-Project Officer for the blocks in Bhudargad. The Prant-*cum*-Project Officer has overall charge of directing and supervising development activities included in the programme. The Collector of the district is expected to take personal interest in the implementation of the schemes and is ultimately responsible for their success.

CHAPTER 18—MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

THE MAHARASHTRA STATE HAS AN INDEPENDENT "TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT" which deals principally with the subjects of "Town Planning" and "Valuation of Real Properties". It also advises Government on matters relating to slum clearance, housing, etc. including legislation.

Organisation.

The department was established in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head. The Bombay Town Planning Act (I of 1915) was passed in the next year providing for the preparation of statutory town planning schemes in respect of areas in course of development within the jurisdiction of local authorities. Under this Act the Local Authorities are both initiating and executing authorities and the functions of the department are of an advisory nature. Very few local authorities have, however, the trained staff required for the preparation of statutory town planning schemes and, therefore, usually an assistant from the department is deputed to prepare scheme for them.

About 125 statutory town planning schemes have so far been undertaken by the local authorities at various places in the State of which 46 have been finally sanctioned and come into force.

The provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act enable the planner to ignore to a great extent existing plot boundaries. In designing his layouts, existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plan, and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to owners of land ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of the scheme can be recovered from the owners benefitted to the extent of 50 per cent. of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned by Government, an Arbitrator is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or proposals and make suitable adjustments or

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amendments in the draft scheme proposals, if found necessary. The department also provides the necessary Arbitrator. The department issues certificates of tenure and title in respect of the plots after a scheme is finally sanctioned. Preparation and scrutiny of layout of co-operative housing societies, when they apply for loans from Government, are the other duties of the department. The Consulting Surveyor is often called upon to give advice on or to prepare layouts of Government, municipal or private lands for purposes of town extension.

In addition to the statutory town planning schemes the department prepared master plans for 27 towns under the First Five-Year Plan Programme. These master plans were prepared only under departmental orders and had no statutory backing. It was experienced that without legal sanction it was difficult to implement them. The law relating to town planning was, therefore, consolidated and amended by the Town Planning Act (XVII of 1954), which has come into force from 1st April 1957. The new Act makes it obligatory upon every local authority (except village panchayat) to prepare a "Development Plan*" for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The local authorities who have been given powers to implement the proposals in these plans, may, for the purpose make one or more town planning schemes for the whole area within its jurisdiction or any part thereof.

In land acquisition cases the Consulting Surveyor to Government has to render expert advice to Government in matters of valuation and in cases where the claimants go in for court references on the awards of the Land Acquisition Officers. He gives expert evidence in the court in such references and is also called upon to fix the rateable values of Government properties within the limits of borough municipalities for determination of municipal assessment. His department is entrusted with the fixation and revision of standard rates of non-agricultural assessment, and when Government has to sell, lease or purchase land, the department is consulted as regards the price and rent.

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* Section 7 of the Act lays down: –

"A development plan shall generally indicate the manner in which the development and improvement of the entire area within the jurisdiction of the local authority are to be carried out and regulated. In particular it shall contain the following proposals, namely:—

(a) proposals for designating the use of the land for the purposes such as (1) residential, (2) industrial, (3) commercial, and (4) agricultural.

(b) proposals for designation of land for public purposes such as parks, playgrounds, recreation grounds, open spaces, schools, markets or medical, public health or physical culture institutions;

(c) proposals for roads and highways;

(d) proposals for the reservation of land for the purposes of the Union, any State, any local authority or any other authority established by law in India; and

(e) such other proposals for public or other purposes as may from time to time be approved by a local authority or directed by the State Government in this behalf."

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The revenue officers of Government are sent to this department for training in the broad principles of village planning, valuation, fixation of non-agricultural assessment, rural development, etc. Lectures on town planning are given by the officers of the department at centres of the Local Self-Government Institute at Poona.

Recoveries are made from local authorities and private persons who avail themselves of the services of the Consulting Surveyor or of his officers in the preparation of town planning schemes, layouts, etc. and also for the performance of the duties as an Arbitrator in town planning schemes.

From a small beginning in 1914 when the activities of the department were mainly restricted to the suburbs of Bombay and other big towns such as Poona, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, etc. the department has developed considerably. In adddition to the Head Office at Poona there were five branch offices at Bombay, Ahmedabad, Kalyan, Kolhapur and Baroda in the area of the erstwhile Bombay State and three more at Amravati, Aurangabad and Nagpur were added after the coming into being of the bilingual Bombay State in November 1956.

In view of the fact that the regular depleted staff of the department was quite unable to cope with the extra work created as a result of the merger of the Deccan State including the major State of Kolhapur, Government created a branch office of this department at Kolhapur on 1st December 1949, in-charge of the Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government with necessary staff. The activities of this branch office are, however, not restricted to the district of Kolhapur but are extended to other adjoining districts as well. There are two draft town planning schemes at Kolhapur already sanctioned by Government, arbitration proceedings in respect of which are in progress (August 1957). Government accorded sanction to the making of town planning schemes, Kolhapur No. III, on 30th November, 1956 and the draft scheme is being prepared by the local authority through the agency of this department. Similarly, the work of preparation of a draft town planning scheme at Ichalkaranji is also being carried out through this department

Community Development Project.

The work of preparing layouts under the Community Development Project for 45 villages in the Kolhapur district has been entrusted to the Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, Kolhapur, with the assistance of necessary additional staff. Requisite layouts for 20 villages were prepared and supplied to the Collector of Kolhapur (1957). In addition to the above work in the Community Development Project Area of Kolhapur district, a few cases outside the Community Development Project Area have also been dealt with in this district.

CHAPTER 18. — Miscellaneous Departments. TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION. Development of Panhala Hill Station.

Government desired to develop the plateau of Panhala as a hill station and, for this purpose, this department has been asked to prepare a Development Plan for Panhala. Government also sanctioned special staff for this purpose under the Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, Kolhapur. A tentative development plan has been prepared which when finalised would be submitted to Government along with the detailed report explaining the proposals thereof.

Planning of New Village Sites.

The unprecedented disastrous river floods during the monsoon of 1953, washed away a number of villages in the district of Kolhapur causing very heavy damage. In respect of Paragaon village, it was decided to abandon the old gaothan and to resettle the villagers in new sites at a safe level above the high flood level.

The work of planning of new village sites was entrusted to the Kolhapur branch office. The principal idea underlying the plans for these new villages is to create a self-sufficient village community provided with its own school, bazar, dispensary, chavadi, gymnasium, play-ground, etc. The plans were prepared after careful survey and enquiry of the needs in consultation with the villagers and received their whole-hearted approval. This has set a new trend in rural planning and its popularity is reflected in the increasing demand for planning and improvement from a number of villages in this region.

Master Plan of Kolhapur.

The most outstanding work done in this district is the preparation of a master plan of Kolhapur town. Under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, a concession has been granted to those local authorities for whose areas master plans have already been prepared to submit such plans to Government as Development Plans for sanction, provided they do so within a period of six months from the coming into force of the Act. The work of finalisation of the master plan so as to conform to the provisions of the new Act is in progress (1957) and the local authority would submit the same to Government for sanction before the prescribed period.

THE DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.* District Publicity Officer.

THE DIRECTORATE HAS A PUBLICITY OFFICE IN THE DISTRICT, situated at Kolhapur. The District Publicity Officer-in-charge of this office has been provided with a mobile publicity van fitted with 16 mm. cinema projection equipment. He moves round the villages of the district and provides free film programmes for the benefit of the villagers. The films exhibited are mostly documentaries imparting instruction in subjects related to rural life such as agriculture, health, citizenship, village industries, etc. The films have also entertainment value. He also delivers lectures to the audience explaining

Government's policies and programmes. He also keeps in close personal contact with the people of the district and arranges the dissemination to the people of news and information sent to him. The office of the District Publicity Officer, Kolhapur, is under the supervision of the Regional Publicity Officer, Poona. **CHAPTER 18.** **Miscellaneous Departments.** DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY. District Publicity Officer.

There are about 13 radio sets installed in the Kolhapur district so far (July 1957), under the Rural Broadcasting Scheme. These radio sets are being maintained from the Rural Broadcasting Headquarters at Sangli. Recently Rural Broadcasting Headquarter have been opened at Kolhapur with a view to looking after the installation and maintenance of sets in the Kolhapur district. The All-India Radio has set-up for the benefit of the villagers, Farm Forums at four rural receiving centres maintained by the Rural Broadcasting Section of the Directorate of Publicity in Kolhapur district. Rural Broadcasting.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES.

ON MANY OCCASIONS THE GOVERNMENT TAKES OVER MANAGEMENT of the estates of minors, lunatics and persons who are incapable of managing their own property in order to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. There are two pieces of legislation which govern such administration. One is the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905) and the other a Union Act, the Guardians and Wards Act (VII of 1890). The idea in Government administering the estates of minors and lunatics is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. In the case of persons incapable of managing their own property, assumption of superintendence of the estate is undertaken only when the estate is encumbered with debt or mismanaged or has no one capable of taking proper care of it, and Government is of opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family and the property is of such value that economical management by the Government agency is practicable. MANAGED ESTATES.

Under the Bombay Court of Wards Act, the Collector of Kolhapur is the Court of Wards for the limits of his district. The State Government has, however, powers to appoint, in lieu of the Collector either a special officer or a board consisting of two or more officers to be the Court of Wards. Delegation of powers of the Court of Wards to the Collector, Assistant or Deputy Collector is provided for. The Court of Wards is empowered to assume the superintendence of the property of the landholder or of any pension holder who is "disqualified to manage his own property." Those who are deemed to be disqualified are: (*a*) minors (*b*) females declared by the District Court as unfit to manage their own property; (*c*) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing or unfit to manage their own property; and Court of Wards Act.

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MANAGED ESTATES.
Court of Wards Act.

(*d*) persons adjudged by a competent civil court to be of unsound mind and incapable of managing their affairs. The Court of Wards, however, cannot assume superintendence of the property of any minor for the management of whose property a guardian has been appointed by will or other instrument or under section 7(*1*) of the Guardians and Wards Act.

In 1957 there were only five estates under the superintendence of the Collector as Court of Wards, Kolhapur, and the net income and the total recurring expenditure on account of these estates were Rs. 12,496 and Rs. 11,900 respectively.

Guardians and Wards Act.

There were no estates under the management of the Collector of Kolhapur under the Guardians and Wards Act prior to 1st April 1954. In 1953, Government under Government Resolution, Revenue Department, No. 2521/49, dated 4th September 1953 decided to entrust the work of management of Minor's Estates to the Collector of the district on the separation of the judiciary from the executive. Accordingly, 27 estates were transferred by the District Judge, Kolhapur, on 1st April 1954 by appointing the Collector as guardian of the property of the said estates in place of the Deputy Nazir, who was managing these estates as guardian of the property. In 1957 there were 22 estates under management and their total income was Rs. 9.030. The State Government has appointed the Personal Assistant to the Collector of Kolhapur as a Collector for the purpose of the said Act in Kolhapur district, under sub-clause (6) of Section 4 of the said Act. A staff consisting of one Aval Karkun and one clerk has been sanctioned by Government for the work of these estates.

CHAPTER 19—VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND DIRECTION.

IT IS TRUE THAT THE RESPONSIBILITY for introducing measures to bring about the moral and material progress of a society lies mainly and primarily on the shoulders of its government. The ever expanding directions of that progress, however, make it almost inevitable that the activities of the government should be supplemented by the efforts of public-spirited individuals and institutions. The urge for public service is ingrained in many persons. And that call from within gets exalted into the call of national duty when a country consciously starts on the journey towards self-development.

In the course of several decades after the seventies of the last century, there came to be established in Kolhapur district, as in other districts of the State, different kinds of institutions intended to serve the various needs of the community. A large part of the present district, with its capital city, then formed the Indian State of Kolhapur. Its rulers inspired the organisation of several public bodies and patronized them. Many enthusiastic and selfless workers devoted themselves to the building up of such bodies which had as their objectives the spread of education, uplift of backward classes, encouragement to physical training, giving an impetus to cultural activities like music and drama etc.

After the merger of Kolhapur State in the State of Bombay, the old royal patronage was withdrawn. But the momentum gained by the institutions in the course of their active life for a number of years did not slow down. Most of them are still thriving on public support and playing their part in enriching the social and cultural life of the district. It is the purpose of this chapter to record briefly the contribution made by the more conspicious of these bodies to the progress of the district.

EDUCATION.

Spread of literacy and education is the motive behind a majority of the organisations, the important ones of which are described below: —

Vidyapeeth Society.

The Vidyapeeth Society, Kolhapur, was founded in 1953 for (i) imparting education by modern methods of teaching, (ii) conducting the Vidyapeeth at Kolhapur, and (iii) starting

CHAPTER 19. Voluntary Social Service Organisations. EDUCATION. Vidyapeeth Society.

associate institutes of the Vidyapeeth in different places. The society consists of the president, one or more vice-presidents and members who together form the governing council which controls the affairs of the society. The society has at present (1958) 44 members. The activities of the society extend over Kolhapur city, Khadaklat and Gaganbavda. It runs five primary schools (including one for girls) and one *balmandir*. It also runs an *ashram* called Tapowan where agriculture is carried on on about 18 acres of land. The value of the society's immovable property as on 31st March 1956 was Rs. 2,16,879. The total income of the society in 1955-56 was Rs. 1,40,046 and expenditure Rs. 1,39,693.

New Education Society.

The New Education Society was established at Kolhapur in 1921. The object of the Society is to bring within easy reach of the masses education, cultural and technical, in all its aspects by starting primary and secondary schools and colleges in different centres. The management of the society's affairs is vested in the governing council composed of 17 members elected by the society's donors from amongst themselves and the society's life members.

The society runs four high schools including one for girls, one middle school, three primary schools, one pre-primary school and the C. P. Ed. Institute (an Institute of Physical Education). Of these, two high schools, two primary schools, one pre-primary school and the C. P. Ed. Institute are at Kolhapur; one high school and one primary school are at Islampur in South Satara district; and one high school is at Jaisingpur in Kolhapur district. There is a middle school at Nandni in Shirol taluka.

The income and expenditure of the society during 1955-56 was Rs. 2,71,287 and Rs. 2,70,224 respectively; the value of its immovable property was Rs. 3,06,000.

Shri Shahu Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

This organisation was started in 1942 with the object of spreading education amongst the masses and inculcating a taste for literature by starting libraries and by arranging lectures. The society runs one high school and two primary schools, including one for girls. All the three institutions are situated in Kolhapur city The society does not have school buildings of its own.

The Azad Shikshan Mandal.

This organisation was started in 1946 with the object of conducting primary schools. It has a working committee consisting of a president, a vice-president, a secretary and manager, and five members. The Mandal runs one primary school and one Montessory school at Kolhapur. The income of the Mandal was Rs. 14,983 in 1956-57. The Mandal does not own any school building.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
EDUCATION.
Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth.

Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti, was established in 1952. The main object before it is rural reconstruction and rural education. Its activities are mainly concentrated in Bhudargad taluka. It is held that the tasks of rural reconstruction and rural education are inseparable and, therefore, the Vidyapeeth has before it the motto "education through reconstruction and reconstruction through education". Since reconstruction of life of a region is the responsibility of the people living in that region, the Vidyapeeth has restricted its role to creating a social will in the minds of the rural people to think in terms of community needs and welfare, discovering local talent, training local social workers and organising local leadership.

The members of the Vidyapeeth are of three kinds viz., (i) institutions, (ii) individuals and (iii) honorary members. The institution members are again of two types; permanent and others. Individual members are of three kinds: fellows, friends and patrons.

The affairs of the Vidyapeeth are managed by three committees viz., the governing council, the executive committee and the advisory board of experts. The governing council consists of the president, two representatives of each of the three permanent institution members, such number of representatives of non-permanent but affiliated institution admitted to membership as may be decided by the executive committee, all individual members, all honorary members and the Director of the Vidyapeeth who is the secretary of the governing council. The president is to convene meetings of the governing council as and when necessary. Within three months of the close of every financial year, an annual general meeting of the governing council has to be convened to consider the annual report and audited statement of accounts for the preceding year, to elect members of the executive committee for the ensuing year, to appoint auditors and to consider the budget and programme for the ensuing year.

The executive committee consists of the President of the Vidyapeeth, the *kulapati* of the Vidyapeeth, two representatives each of the three permanent member institutions, one representative elected by the institutions admitted to membership, one fellow, one friend and one patron elected respectively by all fellows, by all friends and honorary members. and by all patrons respectively and the Director of the Vidyapeeth (who is also the secretary of the executive committee). The executive committee is responsible for the administration of the Vidyapeeth in accordance with the rules and regulations and the directions issued by the governing council.

The advisory board of experts is appointed for a period of three years at a time by the executive committee to advise it on all matters connected with the Vidyapeeth. The chairman of the board is designated as the *kulpati* of the Vidyapeeth.

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EDUCATION.

Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth.

The Vidyapeeth ran the following institutions in 1957:— at Gargoti—one pre-primary school, one basic primary school, one high school, one primary training college, one graduates' basic training centre, and the institute of rural education and research; at Patgaon—one central primary school; at Kadgaon—one central primary school. The Vidyapeeth also ran 40 voluntary primary schools in villages round about Gargoti.

It carries on social reconstruction work in the rural areas of Bhudargad taluka with the co-operation of the villagers and assistance of the staff and students of its institutions. Since 1957-58, Government of India have sanctioned the opening of a Social Education Organisers' Training Centre at Gargoti under the auspices of the Vidyapeeth.

The value of the Vidyapeeth's assets as on 31st March 1957 was Rs. 9,39,787. During 1956-57 the income and expenditure of the Vidyapeeth was Rs. 4,46,600 and Rs. 3,54,600 respectively.

Council of Legal Education.

The Council of Legal Education, Kolhapur, runs the Shahaji Law College at Kolhapur. Till the merger of the Kolhapur State with the Bombay State the college was looked after by the Government of Kolhapur. After the merger, however, the Council took over its management. In instructs the students for LL.B. and LL.M. examinations of Poona University. In 1958, there were seven members on the teaching staff of the college. The assets of the Council consist of a play-ground, building, library and permanent fund. Its annual income is about Rs. 20,000. In 1957-58 its expenditure amounted to Rs. 19,115.

Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

The Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Kolhapur, was established in 1950 to encourage education by opening educational institutions wherever possible. The Mandal consists of patrons, fellows, founder members, life members, members of local bodies, head masters of secondary schools run by the Mandal, retired life members and ordinary members. These along with the principals of colleges run by the Mandal constitute the General Body which elects the president, the vice-president and the secretary. The secretary works for the General Body, Governing Body and the Council.

The Governing Body supervises the work of the Council and issues orders about the recommendations of the Council. The Government Body consists of president, vice-president secretary. all founder members all patrons, and elected representatives of fellows, members and life members in a certain proportion. In addition, one representative each from amongst the head-masters and teachers of the secondary schools of the Mandal, primary teachers of the schools of the Mandal, local bodies and all the principals of the colleges run by the Mandal are also its members.

The Council looks after all matters connected with the day-to-day work. It is elected by the General Body at the end of every three years and consists of elected representatives of patrons (one), founder members (two), headmasters of the secondary schools of the Mandal (one), teachers in secondary schools of the Mandal (one), life members (one) and fellows (one). The Council elects its chairman who can hold that office for three years.

The Shikshan Prasarak Mandal conducts the Gopal Krishna Gokhale College in Kolhapur city. It was originally started in 1950 at Kagal, the birth place of Gokhale after whom it is named. It was subsequently shifted to Kolhapur. It is affiliated to the University of Poona and imparts instruction for B.A. (Special) in Economics, Marathi and English, and B.A. (General) in English, Economics, Political Science, History, Marathi, Philosophy, Sanskrit and Ardhamagadhi. In 1958, there were 700 students and 23 members on the teaching staff. The assets of the College consist of buildings, equipment, play ground and library. Its income and expenditure in 1957-58 was Rs. 1,87,596 and Rs. 1,83,939 respectively.

The Prince Shivaji Education Society.

The Prince Shivaji Education Society, Kolhapur, was established in 1943 with a view to training up good citizens, giving impetus to education of women and to start institutions under its control for that purpose. The sphere of activity of the Society is restricted to Maharashtra. It was registered under the Society's Act in 1943 and again under Public Trusts Act in 1952.

The membership of the Society is open to all above eighteen years of age. The ordinary members have to pay Rs. 12 annually. Degree holders, and in special cases others, are admitted as life members provided that they agree to work in its educational institutions on its terms and conditions at least for fifteen years. There are seven categories of benefactors the donation payable by whom ranges from Re. 1 to Rs. 25,000. President, Vice-President, Secretary and Manager are the officers of the society. Its affairs are managed by the Governing Council which is appointed by the President every year and consists of the President, not more than five Vice-Presidents, two Secretaries, one manager, seven members from amongst ordinary members and one member from among life members. With a view to maintain stability in its working it has been laid down in the constitution that the founder-President will continue to be its President for 20 years after the adoption of the constitution. He is empowered to appoint, dismiss or promote employees of the society, etc., [illegible] responsible to the governing council for such actions.

The general body consists of ordinary members and life members. It approves the actions of the Governing Council, appoints auditors and legal advisors. There were 25 members on the general body in 1958.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

EDUCATION.

The Prince Shivaji Education Society.

In the beginning, the Society conducted two high schools and three primary schools in the city of Kolhapur. In 1945 it started the Mouni Vidya Mandir at Gargoti in Bhudargad taluka. This institution rose to prominence and was later on transformed into an independent institution "The Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth" a (rural university) by name. An account of this institution appears elsewhere in this section. Another land mark in the achievements of the Society is the establishment of Tara Rani Vidyapeeth, Kolhapur, which is well-known for its specialisation in imparting education to women. This institution has also emerged of late as a separate entity and its detailed account is given separately.

At present the Society runs two primary schools in Kolhapur city namely Nagojirao Patankar Vidyalaya and Padmaraje (*Mofat*) Vidyalaya. The assets of the society (buildings, furniture, laboratory, library, motor, etc.) were worth Rs. 4,45,152 on 31st March 1957. Its annual income was Rs. 26,950 as against an annual expenditure of Rs. 33,820.

Tara Rani Vidyapeeth.

Tara Rani Vidyapeeth, Kolhapur, came into existence on the Republic Day of 1953. The founders of this organization had before them the ideal of establishing an institution for the education of girls, particularly those belonging to the non-advanced classes. The Vidyapeeth is named after Chatrapati Maharani Tara Bai, the great woman who founded the State of Kolhapur. Though the Vidyapeeth itself was inaugurated in 1953, its beginnings were made much earlier, namely in 1945, when a free middle school for girls, Tara Rani Vidya Mandir, was started in Kolhapur. In the first year of its existence it taught standards I to III and had on its register 39 girls only. It is out of this humble beginning that the Tara Rani Vidyapeeth of today has emerged.

The Vidyapeeth today has five institutions working under its aegis, viz., (1) Usha Raje (Multi-purpose) High School; (2) Primary Teachers Training College for Women; (3) a Primary school; (4) a pre-primary school (*bal bhavan*); (5) a women's welfare centre. It also conducts Tara Rani Mahila Vasatigriha (Hostel).

In order to provide up-to-date facilities for women's education the independent organization of the Tara Rani Vidyapeeth Trust was established. It is entrusted with executive work and consisted of 12 members in 1958. The general body gives general directions regarding running of the Vidyapeeth. There were 37 members on the general body. Among the assets of the Vidyapeeth were buildings, furniture, laboratory, library etc. which were valued at Rs. 4,54,817. During 1956-57 the trust received Rs. 1,31,932 and spent Rs. 82,398.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
LIBRARIES.
Karvir Nagar Wachan Mandir.

The Karvir Nagar Vachan Mandir was founded in 1850 with the object of collecting and purchasing mainly Marathi, Sanskrit, Hindi and English books and periodicals and supplying them to the public for reading purposes. It was originally called the Native General library.

The membership of the library consists of patrons, life-members and ordinary members. There are, besides, three other special categories viz. (i) honorary members, persons who render great help to the library; (ii) student members; and (iii) child members. Patrons have to donate Rs. 1,001 at a time. Life-members have to donate material worth Rs. 101 or more. Ordinary membership is of three kinds viz., those paying Rs. 2, Re. 1 and As. 8 per month. There were 893 members (in 1957), of whom three were patrons, nine life-members and one honorary member.

The managing committee is responsible for the management of the library. A peculiar feature of the constitution is that the managing committee and the president, vice-president and the auditor are not elected in a general body meeting. All elections are held by secret ballot. In addition to the annual meeting, a general meeting is required to be called in July and November every year.

The managing committee consists of nine elected members, one Government nominee and one nominee of each of the institutions giving a grant to the library of Rs. 1,001 or more. The Kolhapur Municipality can nominate two members. The managing committee elects its own chairman, secretary and treasurer. It can appoint special sub-committees for special purposes.

The library has a building of its own with a large lecture hall There are more than 26,000 books in its possession, some of which are valuable ones. It has also a very good reference section. The library arranges every year a series of lectures by eminent persons. The Vachan Mandir now functions as the District Library of Kolhapur district. The annual income of the library in 1956-57 was Rs. 12,662 and its expenditure was Rs. 12,094; its assets were valued at Rs. 2,44,625. The number of members was 893, of whom three were patrons, nine life-members, one honorary member and the rest were ordinary members.

HOSTELS.
Miss Clarke Hostel.

This hostel was established in 1908 by the then Maharaja of Kolhapur, who held that the social status of the untouchables would not improve unless education was spread among them. It is named after the daughter of the then Governor of Bombay who gave a handsome donation towards the building fund. The institution is run with the sole object of spreading education among untouchables and help them raise their social status and to establish hostels for them.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
HOSTELS.
Miss Clarke Hostel.

The membership of the institution is classified as follows:—(i) patrons paying Rs. 1,000 and above; (ii) life-members paying Rs. 51 and more; (iii) ordinary members of four classes viz., persons paying Rs. 12, 6, 3 or 1 annually.

These members form the general body. The general body elects every year (i) the president, (ii) the secretary, (iii) the chairman of the executive committee and (iv) the executive committee consisting of 15 persons of which not less than five are from rural areas. In 1957 there were 200 members of the institution.

The hostel has at present a 12 room building in addition to a kitchen and dinning dooms. Every year about 60 students take advantage of the hostel. Government grant is received for the messing charges of the students. During 1955-56 the income and expenditure of the institution was Rs. 8,936 and Rs. 10,564 respectively.

Prince Shivaji Maratha Boarding House.

The Prince Shivaji Maratha Boarding House was founded in 1920 to provide, as far as possible, free boarding lodging education and other incidental facilities to poor, intelligent and deserving students from *Bahujan Samaj* studying in secondary schools and colleges; to inclulate in them patriotism and interest in social service, spirit of self-reliance and self-respect; and to grant loans to students to pursue education outside, if sufficient facilities are not available locally.

The day to day affairs of the institution are looked after by an executive committee elected by the general body of members (260) in 1957. The membership of the institution consists of following classes: (i) patron, (only the chatrapati can be the patron); (ii) vice-patrons, persons paying Rs. 1,000 or more. (iii) supporters, persons paying Rs. 500 or more; (iv) honorary life-members, persons paying Rs. 200 or more; (v) life-members who are of three kinds viz., persons paying Rs. 100, Rs. 75 or Rs. 50; (vi) ordinary members are of five kinds viz., persons paying Rs. 5, Rs. 2, Re. 1, As. 8 and As. 4 per month.

The executive committee consists of 12 persons of whom nine are elected by the general body and three are elected by the Past Students' Association. The committee chooses its chairman and appoints a treasurer.

The general body passes the annual report and statement of accounts. It also elects the president and vice-presidents.

The institution was established under the patronage of the then Maharaja of Kolhapur with 10 students. By 1956, 150 students were provided accommodation. Since 1956, lodging and boarding facilities are being provided to about 200 to 225 students including 40 free students. By 1957 more than 2,200 students had completed their education and left the hostel.

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Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
HOSTELS.
Prince Shivaji Maratha Boarding House.

In Kolhapur City, the institution runs two branches which have extensive buildings. The institution has also been given lands and open sites in the city from which it gets some income. The value of the landed property and buildings, as on 31st March 1957, was Rs. 1,21,900 and Rs. 1,91,500 respectively. During 1956-57 the institution received Rs. 20,115 and spent Rs. 21,478.

REHABILITATION AND REFORMATION.
Anath Mahilashram.

Anath Mahilashram, Kolhapur, was established in 1937, to give shelter, and protection to women and children in distress. In the beginning admission to the organisation was restricted only to Hindu women and children, but since independence it has opened its doors to all women and children, without consideration of religion, caste and creed.

The constitution of this institution has been modelled on the lines of that of the Shraddhanand Rescue Home of Bombay. The membership of the institution is open to all who have completed eighteen years of age. There are five classes of membership, viz., (i) patrons—persons donating Rs. 1,000 or more; (ii) helpers—persons donating Rs. 500 or more; (iii) well-wishers—persons donating Rs. 300 or more; (iv) life members—persons donating Rs. 100 or more; (v) ordinary members—persons making a minimum contribution of Rs. 3 per year. All these members constitute the general body which elects its president, honorary secretary, joint honorary secretary and other members of the managing committee. There were 100 members in 1957-58. There are twelve to fifteen members in the managing committee, including the president, honorary secretary and honorary joint secretary. The managing committee lays down the general policy for running the Ashram. Day to day administration of the Ashram is entrusted to the honorary secretary.

By 1957-58 more than 1,200 women and children had been admitted in the Ashram who took advantage of the facilities available, a large number of them coming from Ratnagiri, Belgaum, Sangli, Satara and Kolhapur. Women and children take refuge in the Ashram for several reasons such as poverty, orphanhood, etc. The mode of rehabilitation consists of giving them education and securing suitable employment for them, arranging marriages, restoring children to their guardians after due enquiries, etc. Children below eight years of age can be admitted in the Ashram Children are admitted under the Bombay Children Act, 1948, and give general education and/or vocational training. Children sent by the Juvenile Court get such training for specified periods. The annual income of the institution is about Rs. 12,000. Almost the same amount is spent on food charges, clothing, education, medical relief, etc.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

REHABILITATION AND REFORMATION.

The District Probation and After-Care Association.

The Kolhapur District Probation and After-Care Association was established in 1949. Its objects cover the entire field of treatment and rehabilitation of offenders, especially young offenders. Conducting remand homes, supervision after release, finding employment, and educating public opinion on social responsibility in respect of juvenile crimes are its principal practical tasks. In fact, in Kolhapur, the Association has been virtually put in charge of the working of the Bombay Children Act, 1948. It has also to organize work under the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938. It makes preliminary enquiries regarding the cases of alleged offenders referred to them and carries on supervision in selected areas of offenders released on probation. Since its establishment the Association has given shelter, protection, etc., to more than 1,200 destitute and neglected delinquent children under sixteen years of age.

There were 100 members of the Association in 1957-58. They were principal district officers, leading citizens, lawyers, educationists, social workers, etc. The value of its assets stood at Rs. 61,945 (including its own building worth Rs. 43,000). Its annual income amounts to Rs. 27,000, almost the whole of which is expended on establishment charges, food, clothing, education, medical relief, training in crafts like tailoring, spinning, weaving, etc.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Gayan Samaj and Deval Club.

The Karvir Gayan Samaj was founded in 1883 with the object of arranging musical performances of well-known musicians. The Deval Club was founded in 1893 and registered in 1918 by persons interested in Indian music. Subsequently, as the funds of the Gayan Samaj were found insufficient for performing its functions, joint programmes by the Samaj and the Club came to be organised and ultimately, in 1946, the two institutions were amalgamated. The Gayan Samaj and Deval Club have been instrumental in creating and fostering taste for Indian music among the people of Kolhapur.

According to the constitution of the Gayan Samaj and Deval Club, membership consists of five classes, i.e., honorary patrons, patrons, benefactors, life-members and ordinary members. In 1957, the institution had about 150 members of whom four were patrons and nine life-members. All these members constitute the general body which every year elects a president. two vice-presidents, an auditor and the executive committee.

The executive committee which looks after the day to day affairs of the club consists of not less than seven and not more than eleven members of whom at least one is from among patrons and life-members. The executive committee elects its own chairman and two secretaries. The chairman also works as treasurer.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
MISCELLANEOUS.
Gayan Samaj and Deval Club.

Though the institution was originally started to arrange programmes in music, regular programmes have come to be organised only since recent days. It had also started holding regular classes in Indian music since 1945, though attempts to start classes were made by the Gayan Samaj and the Deval Club as far back as 1890 and 1921 respectively. In 1953, instruction in dancing has also been started. Since 1945, competitions in instrumental music, vocal music and dancing are being conducted. The Club celebrated its Golden Jubilee in 1943 and diamond jubilee in 1954.

The Club owns a building which was constructed in 1919 at a cost of about Rs. 15,000. The income of the Club varies between three and four thousand rupees per year and its expenditure is about Rs. 3,500.

Shri Govindrao Korgaonkar Dharmadaya Sanstha.

This society was established in 1946 with a donation received from Shri Prabhakarpant Korgaonkar. The donation consisted of Rs. 1,91,187 land and buildings worth Rs. 84,000 and insurance policies of Rs. 29,000. The aims and objects of the society are as follows:—(1) to reduce poverty and suffering; (2) to spread knowledge of science, literature, arts, politics and to run and help institutions for the purpose and also to help political workers; (3) to seek the social, economic, moral and intellectual uplift of the masses, particularly of the rural and socially backward population, and to establish and help institutions for this purpose; (4) to establish and help libraries; (5) to publish and help publication of literature helpful to the objects of the society; (6) to attempt to reconstruct rural life and to establish and help institutions for the purpose; (7) to run and help dispensaries, hospitals, maternity homes, *anathashrams*, and children's homes; (8) to help poor widows and helpless persons; (9) to grant scholarships to poor and deserving students; (10) to encourage research in all branches and particularly in rural reconstruction; (11) to work for social welfare, to help and run institutions for the purpose, to publish literature on the subject and to help persons engaged in social work.

There is a board of trustees consisting of seven to nine persons of whom three are to be the direct descendants of the donor. Vacancies are filled by election or nomination. There is to be a general annual meeting of the board within six months of the close of the financial year. At this meeting a president is elected for a term of three years and an executive committee consisting of the president and at least two and not more than four members. The board of trustees also elects a treasurer and a secretary. The board can appoint a managing trustee who will have the powers of treasurer and secretary.

According to the original gift deed, the objects of the society were to be pursued out of the return on the amount and property donated. It was also provided that 75 per cent. of the expenditure of the society should be within the Kolhapur State.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
MISCELLANEOUS.
Shri Govindrao Korgaonkar Dharmadaya Sanstha.

Apart from the monetary help that it gives to various institutions, the Sanstha directly runs the following institutions :—

(1) *Sevak Sangh.*—The idea behind the establishment of this organisation was to bring together social workers spread all over Maharashtra. Each member of the Sangh gets some honorarium from the Korgaonkar Dharmadaya Sanstha. It is limited to a maximum of Rs. 200 per month. The Sanstha also pays for the two annual gatherings of the Sangh and bears the expenditure of the office of the Sangh. The Sangh had 25 members in 1954. The Sanstha does not in any way put restrictions on the Sangh members, nor are they allowed to expect anything more from the Sanstha than their honorarium.

(2) *Gramsevashram.*—The Gramsevashram was founded in 1946. The object was to train youths from rural areas to do social work while pursuing their own work; to train constructive workers; to conduct a hostel and to provide a rest-house for social workers. The Sanstha mainly bears the expenditure of the Gramsevashram. The Ashram has not made much progress so far.

(3) *Hind Kanya Chatralaya.*—This is a hostel for Harijan girls run by the Sanstha. It was originally started in 1946 by the Kolhapur Harijan Sevak Sangh aided by the Korgaonkar Dharmadaya Sanstha. But when the Harijan Sevak Sangh stopped functioning, the Chatralaya was taken over by the Sanstha. It provides hostel accommodation for more than 50 girls. Recently it has built its own building with Government help. In 1954-55, the expenditure of the Chatralaya was Rs. 10,757.

During 1954-55, income of the Korgaonkar Sanstha was Rs. 31,760 and expenditure Rs. 44,718.

Panjarpol Sanstha.

The Panjarpol Sanstha, Shahupuri, Kolhapur, was established in 1906 (i) to take care of weak and infirm cattle (especially cows); (ii) to prevent, by persuasion, sale of cows; (iii) to work for the development of dairy industry and agriculture; and (iv) to run a veterinary dispensary and work against the spread of disease among the cattle.

All persons and traders paying contribution regularly are members of the Sanstha. They form the general body which elects a chairman, secretary, treasurer and a managing committee consisting of seven members, including the three office-bearers.

The main source of income of the Sanstha is the contribution from traders in the Shahupuri Agricultural Produce Market. The contribution is charged to every buyer and the money is

Panjarpole Sanstha.

sent to the Sanstha. In addition the Sanstha gets some income by sale of milk, manure, etc., and by way of rent from its buildings. The Sanstha has three stables and one veterinary dispensary. The dispensary is open to the public. The income of the Sanstha during 1955-56 was Rs. 80,531 and expenditure Rs. 57,663. The main items of income were, an amount of Rs. 56,513 received as contribution from traders, Rs. 11,903 received by sale of milk, manure, etc., and Rs. 5,920 as rent.

Bharat Scouts and Guides.

Bharat Scouts and Guides movement was started in the former Kolhapur State in 1920 and received considerable encouragement from its rulers. The movement was affiliated to the Central Scouts and Guides movement, New Delhi. After the merger of the State with Bombay State, however, the Kolhapur District Branch naturally was affiliated to the Bombay State Organisation. The objects of the scout organisation are well-known. It is an open-air brotherhood of the young, and aims, besides promoting a healthy way of life, at inculcating in its members high individual character and an intense sense of civic duty. The daily round of organized exercise and games and the moral emphasis on doing a daily good turn to some one are designed to realise these objects.

In 1957 there were 9,084 Scouts and 2,111 Guides. Their activities consisted of, besides the usual routine ones, undertaking honorary social work such as collection of funds and clothes for flood victims, attending fairs and gatherings, rendering first aid to the needy, etc. In 1940 the Scouts and Guides, with the help and co-operation of local bodies successfully tackled the gigantic problem of cleaning some 400 villages. The annual income of this district branch is Rs. 2,000 and expenditure is also almost of the same order.

PART VI

CHAPTER 20—PLACES OF INTEREST.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

AJRA.

Ajra (16° 05′ N, 74° 10′ E; p. 5,353), the chief town of the Ājrā Mahāl, lies 40 miles west of Ghaṭaprabhā railway station on the Miraj-Londhā line of the Southern Railway, and twenty-four miles west of Saṅkēśvar. The town is prettily placed a little to the north-west of the meeting of the Citrī and Hiraṇyakēśī on a spur of the Sahyādris, about twenty miles east of the main crest. It is surrounded by jack and mango groves and the deep ravines of the Citrī and Hiraṇyakēśī flanked by high woody hills. The town stretches lengthwise south and north and covers an area of about two and half square miles. It has two parts, Ājrā proper, the old town fenced by an earthwork with an outer ditch, and Nabābpūr of later growth to the north of the earthwork. Besides the river water, the town has an abundant supply from wells. The climate is cool and pleasant during the hot season. Besides footpaths to the villages around, Ājrā is joined with Veṅgurlē by the Amboli Pass road and by a cart track which runs past Gaḍdhiṅglaj with Nipaṇī and Sankēśvar on the Pune-Bēḷgānv road. The chief export is rice, which was sent to Puṇē for the Pēśavā's household and is still well known all over the Deccan. Besides rice, *hirḍā*, Terminalia chobula is exported. A weekly market is held every Friday and is largely attended by people from the neighbouring villages.

History.

Ājrā once belonged to the chief of Kānaśi through whom the Icalkaranjī chiefs take their name of Ghorapaḍē. During the disorders of the latter part of the eighteenth century Ājrā was a centre of border warfare. In 1746. through the influence of the third Pēśavā Bāḷāji Bājirāo (1740-1761), Chatrapati Śahū of Sātārā gave the town and sub-division of Ājrā to Anubāī Sāhēb the daughter-in-law of Nāro Mahādēv the founder of the Icalkaranjī family. In 1792 the town and sub-division of Ājrā were farmed to one of the ancestors of the Phadnis or Phadṇavis family of Ājrā. Under the Phadnis Ājrā was constantly at war with its neighbours Nēsri, Bhudargaḍ, and the Kolhāpūr State, and was guarded by a garrison 1000 strong kept at a yearly cost of about Rs. 32,000. In 1800 one Cinto Rāmcandra Phadnis led the small garrison of Ājrā against Haroḷavaḍā and Bēllēvāḍi and stormed Ibrāhimpūr. In 1801 Jivājī, Cinto Rāmcandra's brother. lost his life in a fight at Bhudargaḍ. The family however, managed to retain Ājrā in their hands.

As the headquarters of mahāl, Ājrā has the usual revenue, police, and post offices. The town has a high school, a primary school, a dispensary, a veterinary dispensary, a reading room, Hindu temples, a Roman Catholic church and two mosques. The chief objects of interest are the temples of Ravaḷnāth and Rāmliṅg and the ruins of a hill fort. The temple of Ravaḷnāth has a rest-house attached and enjoys a yearly grant of Rs. 225-2-9 as cash allowance. In a deep ravine on the Hiraṇyakēśī, with a fine pool and waterfall, about a mile and a half north of the town, is the small stone temple of Rāmliṅg, with a life-size image of Nandi or Śiva's bull. Every year on Mahāśivrātrī day in *Māgh* or January-February a fair is held attended by about 5,000 people. A small hill at the north end of Nabābpūr is crowned by the ruins of an old fort. According to tradition the older town spread over the top and slopes of the hill, but as in Muhammadan times it was constantly attacked by robbers, the people removed to Ājrā which they strengthened with an earthwork and ditch. The town had formerly only two gates. To give more air, several fresh breaches were made in the wall, and bamboo thickets which covered the ditch were cleared.

ALTE.

Alte Kasaba (Hatkaṇangale T. 17° 10′ N ; 74° 30′ E p. 5,214), from aḷta, a red colour formerly made in the town, was the former headquarters of the Aḷtē sub-division. It lies in the Varṇā valley, about twelve miles north-east of Kolhāpūr and six miles south of the Varṇā. It is two miles from Hatkaṇaṅgale railway station on the Kolhāpūr-Miraj-Sāṅglī metre gauge railway. The town is surrounded on three sides by woody heights and has a good supply of well water. The people live in brick and tile-built houses. Aḷtē is said to be more than 800 years old. Weekly markets are held every Tuesday and Wednesday. During the disorders at the close of the eighteenth century, Aḷtē was twice burnt to the ground. The objects of interest are a Musalman prayer-place called Ramzān Dargā, and about a mile to the west of the town the temples of Śidobā, a Lingāyat saint, of Dhuḷobā, probably another name for Khaṇḍobā of Ālam Prabhu, a Lingāyat shrine, and of Rāmling or Śiva. The Ramzān Dargā is a square building, including the plinth, forty-four feet long by forty feet broad and including the dome thirty-three feet high. The prayer place is visited by many Musalmans and by a few Hindus. Every year on the 15th of *Savaḷ* a fair or *urus* is held attended by about 2,000 people. The Dargā enjoys free land valued at a yearly assessment of Rs. 613. Of Hindu temples the temple of Śidobā is a small tile-roofed stone and mortar building five feet long and five feet broad. It is visited chiefly by Kuṇbis. The temple of Dhuḷobā which is built in Indo-Saracenic style, is twenty-five feet square and has a small central dome. It is said to have been built by a weaver of Kāgal. Every year in *Caitra* or March-April a fair is held attended by about 5,000 people chiefly Marāṭhās. The temple of Ālam Prabhu which

is also built in Indo-saracenic style, is twenty-seven feet long, seventeen feet broad and ten feet high. It is chiefly visited by Liṅgāyats and Jaīns. According to a local legend Prabhu was a Liṅgāyat saint who came to Alṭē. He was followed by his disciple Ādiling as far as Alṭē. As he could find no further trace of his Guru, he thought that Prabhu had buried himself alive at Alṭē. To show respect for his teacher, Ādiling built the shrine and set up a lamp which is still kept burning and worshipped. There is a local story that the temple was visited by the Emperor Ālamgir or Aurangzēb (1658-1707) and was presented by him with a *māca* or footstool. The original footstool has disappeared and a new one has been installed in front of the lamp. Some small domes in front of the temple are said to have been raised in honour of devotees of Śiva who performed the live-burial or *jivant-samādhī*. The last live-burial is said to have taken place about 150 years ago. The cave temple of Rāmling is on the side of a rocky hill. The chief cave was originally nearly twelve feet square, but three quarters of it have been turned into a cistern five feet deep. At the inner end of the temple are a rock-carved ling and a Gaṇapati from which water always trickles. Before they can reach the *ling*, worshippers have generally to pass through three or four feet of water. Outside the cave-mouth a massive Hemāḍpanti structure thirteen feet square rests on stone pillars. By the side of the main cave is a row of seven small cells dedicated to the seven Purāṇic sages or *Sapta ṛiṣis*. Near the temple are several unfailing springs, of which the Nīlagaṅgā or Blue Ganges and the Pāpanāśī (sin-destroyer) are *tīrths* or sacred pools. The position of the *ling* and the Gaṇapati seems to show that the caves are Buddhist or Jain and have been adopted for Brahmanic worship.

BALINGE.

Balinge (Karvīr, T. 16° 40′ N, 74° 10′ E ; p. 638), a village, lies five miles south of Kolhāpūr. Its chief interest is the temple of Kātyāyanī, prettily placed on a hill to the south of the village. The temple is an old stone building 40′ × 20′ × 12′ high. The goddess Kātyāyanī is held in great honour by the Hindus and is mentioned in the Karavir or Kolhāpūr Purāṇ as the great helper of Aṁbābāi. The Kātyāyanī stream which rises in this hill is the main feeder of the Kolhāpūr water works. The importance of the shrine and the beauty of the temple site make Bālingē a favourite picnic place for the people of Kolhāpūr.

BEED-KASABA.

Beed-Kasaba (Karvīr T. : 16° 35′ N ; 74° 05′ E ; p. 3,121), an old village in the Karvīr taluka, lies on the Pancgaṅgā about nine miles south-west of Kolhāpūr. Bīd has a temple of Bīdēśvar, 51′ × 25′ × 45′ high, and a Friday market, where small quantities of grain, coarse cloth, and vegetables are brought for sale. Though now a small village, Bīḍ is said to have once been the capital of an old chiefship which included

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Places.

BEED-KASABA.

Kolhāpūr and Panhāḷā. Round the village are many ruins, among them an old stone temple with an image under which is a broken stone with the fragment of an inscription. The walls and columns, with numerous mouldings and much scroll work are in the style of about the thirteenth century. Small ancient gold coins are sometimes found near the old mud fort.

BHADOLI.

Bhadoli (Hatkaṇangaḷē T ; p. 3,810) a village in the Hatkaṇangaḷē taluka, lies twelve miles north of Kolhāpūr (16° 40′ N ; 70° 10′ E). The village takes its name from the temple of Bhadrēśvar which is built of brick and mortar, is 122 feet square, and including the spire is twenty-three feet high. Besides the temple, the village has a domed Musalman tomb built of stone and mortar about 500 feet square and thirty-two feet high.

BHIMSAGIRI.

Bhimsagiri (Gaḍhinglaj T.), a group of two or three temples lies about a thousand yards west of Sāmangaḍ. The chief is Bhim's temple which has a stone-built *gābhāra* or the inner hall shrine with a quadrangular vestibule or *mandap*. It has a room for about 300 people and is 100′ × 84′ × 14′ high. In the shrine is a stone image of Māruti. Close to the temple is an old underground excavation 75′ × 40′ × 15′ deep, and about 200 yards east of the temple is a grove of mango and other trees. At this temple, from the dark 13th of *Magh* or January-February to the bright 5th of *Phalgun* or February-March a yearly fair is held attended by about 10,000 people. The fair is said to have been started by Bāburāv Gadnis a former commandant of the Sāmangaḍ fort. Near Bhim's temple stands the temple of Chaḷobā where in *Magh* or January-February a yearly fair is held attended by about 3,000 people who generally offer the deity 400 to 500 sheep.

BHUDARGAD.

Bhudargad (Bhudargaḍ T.), one of the Kolhāpūr forts which, in 1844, were dismantled under the advice of the Bombay Government, stands on a bluff rock thirty-six miles south of Kolhāpūr. It is 2,600 feet from north to south and 2,100 feet from east to west, and is enclosed by a broken stone and mortar wall with two gateways. It has a small habitation. At the foot of the hill are two hamlets in one of which every Monday a small market is held.

History.

Before the repairing of the fort (1667), the hill of Bhudargaḍ had shrines sacred to Kedārliṅg, Bhairav, and Jākhrubāī, with a hamlet at the foot of the hill inhabited by the priests who performed the service of the deities and managed their festivals. In 1667 the fort was repaired and put in excellent order by Śivājī. Shortly after, it was captured by the Moghals. About five years later the fort was retaken, and the standard colours of the Moghal general who was killed in the conflict were presented to the temple of Bhairav where they are still kept. About the close of the eighteenth century Parśurām

Bhāū Paṭvardhan took the fort by bribing the garrison and held it for about ten years when it was retaken by the Kolhāpūr State. Subsequently Paraśurām Bhāū and Gopāḷ Pant Apṭe the chief of Icalkaranjī forces made several vain attempts to win it back. During this war, of the five hamlets which formerly clustered round the fort three were destroyed. In 1844 the garrisons of Bhudargaḍ and Sāmāngaḍ revolted and closed their gates. On the 13th of October, 1844, Bhudargaḍ was taken by British forces and dismantled.

The chief object of interest is the temple of Bhairav which is about 3,000 feet square and consists of a stone and cement shrine, a hall, and a northern verandah. In front of the hall stands a stone and mortar lamp-pillar. The temple has about twenty ministrants supported by a yearly cash allowance of about Rs. 560 and land valued at a yearly assessment of about Rs. 130. Every year from the dark first to the dark tenth of *Māgh* or January-February a fair is held attended by about 4,000 people and with a sale of goods worth about Rs. 2,000.

CHANDGAD.

Chandgad (15° 55′ N, 74° 10′ E ; p. 2,782) is the headquarters of Cāndgaḍ tālukā. It lies 26 miles west of Belgaum. In the temple of Ravālnāth is a Persian inscription. The temple, which was on the point of complete ruin was repaired with the help of a grant from the Peśavā in the 18th century. The present two storey structure is a late addition to the original building of the temple. Cāndgaḍ has a ruined mud fortlet or *gaḍhi*. In 1827 the *gaḍhi* was described as a place of no strength, useful only to protect the persons and property of the inhabitants during incursions of predatory horse. There were forty irregulars and one small gun in the fort. In 1724 Nāg Sāvant, a son of the great Phonḍ Sāvant of Sāvantvāḍi, overran and reduced the Cāndgaḍ petty division and established a post or *thaṇa* at Cāndgaḍ. In 1750 Cāndgaḍ fort with Pārgaḍ and Kāḷanandigad and land valued at Rs. 5,000 a year were granted by the Kolhāpūr chief to Sadāśivrāv Bhāū the Peśavā's cousin, who dissatisfied with his treatment at Poona, had made overtures to Kolhāpūr and got himself appointed Peśavā of Kolhāpūr. In 1844 Cāndgaḍ and Pārgaḍ were threatened by insurgents[1] but timely reinforcement of irregulars saved the forts from attack. At present the fort is completely in ruins and is beyond recognition. Its mud walls have collapsed, and, except for the central part of the fort, which is on a higher level than the plain, the whole site is in the process of getting into level with the surrounding plains.

GADHINGLAJ.

Gadhinglaj (16° 10′ N, 74° 20′ E ; p. 8,546) lies on the left bank of the Hiraṇyakēśī closed to the Saṅkēsvar Amboli Pass road forty-five miles south-east of Kolhāpūr. It is 26 miles from Ghaṭaprabhā railway station on the Bangalore-Poona meteh gauge railway. It is the head-quarters of the taluka of the same name. The river Hiraṇyakēśī flows from west to east on

[1] See Kolhapur History.

CHAPTER 20. Places. GADHINGLAJ.

the outskirts of the town. The town is a centre of trade for the agricultural produce of the surrounding villages. A weekly bazar is held every Sunday.

Area and Population.

Of the total population of 8,546 according to the census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 4,291 and the non-agricultural classes 4,255. Of the latter 1,019 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 1,207 persons from commerce, 110 persons from transport, and 1,919 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1887 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers nearly 3 square miles. The municipal council is composed of 16 members, all elected. One seat is reserved for the scheduled castes in ward No. 1 and two seats for women, to rotate alternately in wards I-II and wards III-IV. There are two municipal committees, namely the managing committee and the octroi committee. In 1954-55, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 59,556 House tax was Rs. 18,221 ; special sanitary cess, Rs. 1,736 ; general sanitary cess, Rs. 3,297 ; grants Rs. 5,817 ; licence fees, Rs 2,797 , revenue derived from municipal property, Rs. 9,163 ; octroi, Rs. 14,970 (from 26th January to 31st March 1955) ; miscellaneous, Rs. 3,555. The total expenditure in the same year amounted to Rs. 39,898 of which Rs. 0,569 was incurred under general administration ; Rs. 5,712 under public safety , Rs. 21,950 under public health and convenience ; Rs. 100 under public instruction ; contributions Rs. 2,000 and miscellaneous Rs. 3,567.

Municipal Services.

There is a Government dispensary in the town, to which the municipality contributes Rs. 1,000 every year. There is also a Government veterinary dispensary, which is now located in the *dharmaśālā*. As the town is situated on a hillock the sullage water is easily drained away. There is no special drainage work for the town (February 1956). There are some stone-lined gutters and other *kutchā* drains by the side of roads, which are meant only for draining away the rain water. The town gets all its water supply from a few wells in the town and from the Hiraṇyakēśī river outside the town. Very few of the wells contain drinkable water. There is a scarcity of drinking water in the town, and the question of building a water-works for the town is now (February, 1956) engaging the attention of the municipality. There is compulsory primary education functioning in the town. The District School Board manages it, the municipality making its statutory contribution to the School Board. The Government runs a high school called Mahārānī Rādhābāī High School. There is also a boarding house called Chatrapati Śivājī Boarding, run by a private institution to which the municipality makes a grant of Rs. 100

a year. There is no fire service maintained by the municipality. The total length of roads within the municipal limits is 9 miles, all of which is unmetalled. There are no municipal burial places. There are two burial places, one maintained by the Muslim community and the other by the Lingāyat community. The municipality has decided to provide a public park for children and approached Government for the grant of suitable land for the purpose.

Samangad Fort.

The fort of Sāmangaḍ is situated nearly six miles away to the south-east of the town. A big fair is held there in the month of March attended by about 12,000 people.

Like other Kolhāpūr towns Gaḍhinglaj suffered greatly during the long wars at the close of the eighteenth century (1773-1810), especially at the hands of the Paṭwardhan Konherāo and the Desāis of Nipāṇī. The fort which was built in about 1,700 by an ancestor of the Kāpaśī family is now in ruins.

Temples.

The chief temple in honour of Kālēśvar in the centre of the town is built of rubble and mortar 30′ × 20′ × 30′ high. About three miles north of Gaḍhinglaj is a temple of Bahirī, where every March a fair is held attended by about 8,000 people.

GAGAN-BAVADA.

Gagan-Bavada (Bāvaḍā Peta ; p. 1,338), one of the fifteen forts built by Bhoja Rājā of Panhāḷā (1178-1209), lies thirty-six miles south-west of Kolhāpūr on a peak of the Sahyādris more than 2,500 feet above the sea. The fort rises sharply from the Konkaṇ and is very difficult to approach. The hill and the country around were formerly thick with forest, which has now largely disappeared.

About a mile to the east of the fort lies the villages of Bāvaḍā An excessive rainfall averaging 249 inches during the thirty-seven years ending 1957 makes the climate unhealthy during the rainy season (June to September). The water is abundant and excellent. Every Thursday a market is held at which the chief article sold is grain. Every year in *Caitra* or March-April a fair is held in honour of Śri Rāma. The fair is said to have been established on the advice of the saint Rāmadās by Rāmcandra Nilkanṭh Amātya, the founder of the Bāvaḍā Jahāgir family. Besides the above fair, a fair or urus, is held in honour of Gaibi Sāhēb, twice a year, one at the beginning of the rains and the other in *Kārtik* or October-November.

GANDHARVGAD FORT.

Gandharvgad Fort: (Chāndgaḍ Taluka), about 400 feet above the plain, lies in a spur of the Sahyādris about twenty-one miles west of Beḷgāñv. The hill on which the fort is built has bare sides with an easy ascent on one side and a difficult ascent on the other side. Of the fortifications which occupied a space about 1,000 feet square the greater part are gone and only the walls to the west and north appear lining the ravines. Gandharvgaḍ was built about 1724 by Nāg Sāvant the second son of the great Phonḍ Sāvant of Sāvantvāḍī. In 1778 the

CHAPTER 20. Places. GANDHARVGAD FORT.

Kolhāpūr chief captured Gandharvagaḍ, but in 1793 it was restored to Sāvantvāḍī through Scindia's influence. About 1787 the chief of Nesārgi rose against his master the chief of Kolhāpūr and took Gandharvgaḍ among other forts; but soon after, the chief and his confederates were put down, their army was dispersed, and the forts retaken. There were temples of Bhālobā. Śiva, Gajānana and Māruti inside the fort. All of them are now in ruins. The fort has a population of about 100 at present (1956).

HATKANANGALE.

Hatkanangale (16° 45′ N; 74° 15′ E; p. 3,914), the headquarters of the Hatkaṇangalē taluka, is a railway station on the Kolhāpūr-Miraj line, 13 miles north-east of Kolhāpūr.

According to a local legend Hatkaṇangale is named from a stone hand or *hat* which was set up in memory of a man who passed an ordeal by dipping his hands in boiling oil. The chief object of interest is a well-preserved domed tomb or *darga* dedicated to Gonsāhēb Pir. It is said to have been built about 500 years ago and is 33′ × 26′ × 33′ high including the dome. The circumference of the dome is 68 feet. Inside the dome is a Parsian inscription written on a copper plate. The tomb enjoys rent-free land valued at a yearly assessment of Rs. 275-8-0. Of Hindu temples, the temple of Narhari is 16′ × 16′ × 30′ high and enjoys rent-free land valued at a yearly assessment of Rs. 35; the temple of Viṭhobā has a good rest-house. A market is held every Wednesday at which the articles sold are *guḷ* and turmeric.

HERLE.

Herle (Hatkaṇangalē T. 16° 40′ N; 74° 15′ E; p. 4,562), is on the Kolhāpūr-Miraj road eight miles north-east of Kolhāpūr and three miles from the Rukaḍī railway station. On every Saturday a market is held at which the chief article sold is grain. Formerly, Hērlē was a military station with a detachment of horse called the *divan pagas* or minister's troops. It has two old temples, one dedicated to Māruti and the other to Mahādēo. The temple of Māruti which is thirty feet long and twenty broad, is stone built and is about 200 years old. The temple of Māhadēo seems older than the temple of Māruti and has a portico resting on stone pillars. It is thirty-four feet long and twenty-one broad.

HUPARI.

Hupari (Hatkaṇangalē T. 16° 35′ N; 74° 20′ E; p. 7,039), nine miles south from Hatkaṇangalē railway station; lies ten miles south-east of Kolhāpūr. It has two old temples. One is of Ambābāī (17′ × 15′ × 27′ high) and the other of Mahādēo (15′ × 13′ × 18′) high) both built of stone and mortar. Every April at Ambābāī's temple a fair is held attended by about 1,000 people.

ICHALKARANJI.

Ichalkaranji (Hatkaṇangalē T.: 16° 40′ N; 74° 25′ E; p. 27,423; a 8·7 square miles), lies in the Pancagangā valley about eighteen miles east of Kolhāpūr and half a mile north of the river. It is six miles south-east of Hatkaṇangale railway station. The town is said to be formed of seven hamlets. The climate is

healthy, but the water of the wells is brackish. Every year in October a large fair attended by 2,000 people is held in honour of God Vyankatēś. On the 24th and 25th of *Safar* a Muhammadan fair or *urūs*, attended by about 1,000 people from ten to twenty miles round, is held in honour of Makhdum Pir and Dari Pir.

Area and Population.

Of the total population of 27,423 according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 6,831 and the non-agricultural classes 20,592. Of the latter, 11,786 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 2,530 persons from commerce, 359 persons from transport; and 5,917 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.*

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1893 and now functioning under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII) of 1925. The Municipality area covers 7·59 square miles. The municipal council is composed of 20 members all elected. Two of the seats are reserved for women and one for the Scheduled Castes. There are five municipal committees, viz., the Standing Committee and committees for public health, public works, octroi and law. The Chief Executive Officer is at the head of the administrative organization. In 1954-55, the total income of the municipality, excludng extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 3,93,961, composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 2,92,139, realisation under special Acts, Rs. 386; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 26,110; miscellaneous, Rs. 22,421; and grants and contribution Rs. 52,905. The total expenditure in the same year amounted to Rs. 3,86,069, of which Rs. 72,103 was incurred under general administration and collection charges; Rs. 25,932 under public safety (i.e., conservancy roads, etc.); Rs. 15,784, under public instruction; Rs. 150 under contributions; and miscellaneous, Rs. 1,783.

Municipal Services.

There is a Government dispensary and maternity home in the town. The municipality has recently resolved to take over this dispensary under its control, and Government orders are awaited (February 1956). Government also maintains a veterinary dispensary in the town, for which the municipality does not give any contribution. There are no special drainage works for the town. There are two open and roadside gutters. The total length of drains is 1,20,000 feet. out of these, about 30,000 feet are half-round and pucca built; the rest are stone-lined and *Kachhā* drains. Water is supplied to the town from pipes connected to a reservoir to which water is raised from the Pancagangā by means of mechanical pumps. There is a new scheme of water supply, estimated to cost ten lakhs of rupees, which the municipality has submitted to Government for

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* There is something wrong with the figures given in the Kolhapur Census Hand Book. The total for both the agricultural and non-agricultural classes amounts to 27, 182 whereas the total population is given as 27, 423.

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ICHALKARANJI.

administrative approval. The municipality has already earmarked two lakhs of rupees for the scheme. An underground drainage scheme is also under consideration to be put into operation when the new water supply scheme is completed. Compulsory primary education in the town is managed by the Kolhāpūr District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. The municipality maintains a fire-fighter and a fighter-tractor, but there is no qualified staff to operate them. The total length of roads maintained by the municipality is 14¾ miles, 2 miles of which are asphalted and 4½ miles metalled, and 8¼ miles unmetalled. A municipal market estimated to cost Rs. 52,000 is under construction (February 1956). A library named Apṭe Vācan Mandīr receives annual grants from the municipality.

Burial Places.

The burial places in the town are all under the management of private institutions. There are three for Muslims, one for Mahars, one for Lingāyats and one cremation ground for Hindus. The municipality maintains a public park named Sundar Bāg.

The palace of the Jahāgirdār of Icalkaranjī is an object of interest in the town.

Jaisingpur.

Jaisingpur (Shirola T.; 16° 45′ N; 74° 30′ E; p. 8,048) is a small town situated on the Miraj-Kolhāpūr line of the Southern Railway, with a railway station bearing its name. Of the total population of 8,048 according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 1,572 and the non-agricultural classes 6,476. Of the latter, 1,207 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 2,397 persons from commerce, 282 persons from transport, and 2,590 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1942 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers ¾ square mile. The municipal council is composed of 14 members. One seat is reserved for women, and the election is by rotation in each of the four wards of the town. The work of the municipality is distributed among four committees viz., (1) Managing Committee; (2) Octroi Committee; (3) Sanitary Committee; and (4) Water Works Committee.

Income and Expenditure.

In the year ending 30th November 1956, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 50,934; composed of octroi, Rs. 32,857; house-tax, Rs. 4,845; wheel tax Rs. 369; special water rate Rs. 7,569; conservancy, Rs. 2,973; theatre tax, Rs. 402; and market fees, Rs. 1,919. The total expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 25,215, composed of conservancy Rs. 2,565; lighting, Rs. 4,708; water supply, Rs. 10,011; drainage, Rs. 749; hospitals and dispensaries, Rs. 2,146; contributions, Rs. 5,000; and latrines and urinals, Rs. 36.

JAISINGPUR *Medical Institutions.*

The municipality does not run any dispensary, but pays an annual remuneration to a private doctor, who gives free medical aid to the poor. There is one Government veterinary dispensary. There is also a T.B. sanitorium about half a mile east from the town run by a private board of trustees.

Other Municipal Services.

Water is supplied to the town from a well near the railway station. The present water supply being inadequate, the municipality has submitted for Government's approval a water supply scheme estimated to cost about Rs. 6,35,000. The municipality has constructed *kutchā* and *puccā* gutters in some parts of the town to drain sullage water. Compulsory primary education in the town is managed by the District School Board, Kolhāpūr, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. The municipality has started a Montessori School from 26th January, 1956, and has appointed a lady teacher and a *dāī*. There are 29 children in the school. There is one high school run by a private institution. There is one fire fighter, with a driver and a cleaner to look after it. The fire-fighter is also used to water the roads. The approximate length of roads within the municipal area is eight miles and 3¼ furlongs, only three miles of which are metalled.

There are municipal cremation and burial grounds with separate arrangements for Hindus and Muslims. There is also a public garden maintained by the municipality.

JOTIBA'S HILL.

Jotiba's Hill (Panhālā T.) also called Wādi-Ratnāgirī lies about nine miles north-west of Kolhāpūr. The hill rises about 1,000 feet from the plain in a truncated cone, and, though disconnected, forms part of the Panhāḷā spur which stretches from the Sahyādri crest to the Kṛṣṇa. On the woody hill-top is a small village peopled mostly by *guravs* or priests of Jotibā. From very old times this hill has been considered specially sacred. In the middle of the village is a group of temples, the best three of which are dedicated to Jotibā under the names of Kedārling, Kedārēśvar, and Rāmling. The temple of Kedārling stands between the other two. According to a local legend Ambābāī of Kolhāpūr being disturbed by demons went to Kedārēśvar in the Himālaya hills, practised severe penance, and prayed him to destroy the demons. In answer to her prayers Kedārēshvar came to Jotibā's hills, bringing with him and setting up the present Kedārling. The original temple is said to have been built by one Navji Saya. In its place about 225 years ago (1730) Rāṇojirāo Śindē built the present temple. It is a plain building 57′ × 37′ × 77′ high including the spire. The second temple of *Kedārеśvar* which is 49′ × 22′ × 89′ high was built by Daulatrāo Śindē in the year 1808. The third temple of Rāmling, 13′ × 13′ × 40′ high including the dome, was

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built in about 1780 A.D. by one Mālji Nilam Panhāļkar. In a small domed shrine in front of the temple of Kedārēśhvar are two sacred bulls of black stone. Close to these temples is a shrine sacred to Chopdāī which was built by Pritirāv Himmat Bahādur in about 1750 A. D. It is 32′ × 46′ × 80′ high including the dome. A few yards outside the village stands a temple of Yamāi built by Rāṇojirāo Shinde. It is 47′ × 27′ × 49′ high including the dome. In front of Yamāī are two sacred cisterns, one of which (164′ × 143′ × 18′ deep) is said to have been built by Jijābāī Sāheb about 1743; the other called *Jamadāgnya tirth* and built by Rāṇojirāo Śinde is 54′ × 52′ × 13′ deep. Besides these two *tirths* (scared pools), and five ponds and wells, two sacred streams flow down sides of the hill. One stream rising from the Kuśāvarta pools is called the Godā, the other which rises to the north of the hill and is known as Haimavati falls into the Varṇā. Most of the temples on Jotibā's hill are made of a fine blue basalt which is found on the hills. In many parts the style of architecture, which is strictly Hindu, is highly ornamented, several of the sculptured figures being covered with brass and silver plates. The chief object of worship is *Jotibā* who, though called the son of the sage Pāngaṇḍ, is believed to have been Pāngaṇḍ himself, who became man to help the rulers of the Deccan in their fights with demons. According to tradition Jotibā's destruction of one of the demons named Ratnāsura gave the place the name of Ratnāgirī in addition to these of Kedārļing, Kedārnāth, and Nāth. In honour of the victory over the demon, on the full-moon of *Caitra* or March-April, a yearly fair is held attended by about a lakh of people, some of whom come from a distance of 700 miles. The sale of grain, cloth, copper and brass vessels and sweetmeats is estimated to be worth Rs. 2,00,000. Besides this great fair, small fairs are held every Sunday and full-moon day and on the bright sixth of *Śrāvaṇa* or August. On these days, the image is carried round the temple in a litter with great pomp. The image in which Jotibā dwells is of a soft black stone, and the stone in which his wife Yamāī lives is a rough unshaped block smeared with oil and redlead. On the great fair day in *Caitra* or March-April, a brass image of Jotibā amid the shouts of about a lakh of people, is carried to Yamāī for the yearly marriage. Part of the cremony is to lay between Jotibā and Yamāī a seal or *Shika* and a dagger or *Katar*. To support the staff of ministrants the temples have a yearly revenue of more than Rs. 12,000, a part of which is contributed by the Scindias. Ten Brahmins are busy in ceaseless prayer and forty-one servants and two horses, one elephant and one camel are kept to attend the grand festival. Since 1873 a poll-tax of half to two annas has been levied on the pilgrims visiting the place on the chief fair days. The yearly collection amounts to about Rs. 16,000 part of which is spent in mending the roads and keeping the place clean. There is a good rest-house and the water-supply has been lately improved. A cart road joins Jotibā's hill with the Kolhāpūr-Ambā Pass road.

Kāgal (16° 30′ N ; 74° 15′ E ; p. 9,821), the head-quarters of the Kāgal taluka, is 12 miles south-east of Kolhāpur on the Puṇē Beḷgāñv road. It lies in the valley of the Dudhagaṅgā about a mile south of the river and is surrounded by rich garden land shaded by fine old mango trees.

Area and Population.

Of the total population of 9,821 according to the census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 4,687 and the non-agricultural classes 5,134. Of the latter 1,310 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 816 persons from commerce ; 111 persons from transport and 2,897 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1909 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers 6¼ square miles. The municipal council is composed of 16 members. Two of the seats are reserved for women and two for the Scheduled Castes.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1955-56 the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads was Rs. 22,690, composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 11,477, revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation. Rs. 6,427, Government grant Rs. 4,028 ; and miscellaneous, Rs. 758. The total expenditure, in the same year amounted to Rs. 18,046 of which Rs. 1,630 was incurred under general administration, Rs. 2,627 under water supply, Rs. 1,326 under lighting, Rs. 114 under current repairs, Rs. 8,844 under sanitation, Rs. 1,839 under public works, and Rs. 1,666 under miscellaneous.

Municipal Services.

There is a Government dispensary in the town. Government also maintains a veterinary dispensary in the town. The municipality has built some *kachhā* drains and also some stone-gutters. Water is supplied in sufficient quantities from pipes connected to the Jaising tank constructed in 1892 and situated at a distance of one mile. Compulsory primary education in the town is managed by the Kolhapur District School Board, the municipality contributing its statutory share. There is a private high school, named Śahū High School. There is a public library named Mahātmā Gāndhi Vācanālaya, Kāgal, to which the municipality gives an annual grant of Rs. 50. There is no fire service maintained by the municipality. The total length of roads maintained by the municipality is six miles, only four miles of which are metalled. Bazar takes place twice in a week i.e., on Monday and Thursday. Various kinds of vegetables and fruits and corn are brought for sale.

Burial Places.

There are municipal burial places in the town. There is one cremation ground reserved for Hindus and it is situated half a mile from the town. There is also one special shed erected which is being used in rainy season. There is also one burial place reserved for the Muslim community.

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Places.
KAGAL.
History.

Between 1775 and 1825 Kāgal was more than once sacked and burned by the Rājās of Kolhāpūr. The oldest known mention of Kāgāl is in grants or *sanads* of the sixteenth century from the Bijapur Government. No old buildings remain entire but there are ruins of mosques and temples. The old fort was destroyed by Yaśavantarāo Śindē of Kolhāpūr in 1780. In its place about 1813 the late Hindurāo Ghāṭgē built a new fort 377 feet from east to west by 366 feet from north to south. It is enclosed by a ditch and a thick stone wall now much ruined. The eastern portion of the rampart was destroyed in 1858 by order of the British Government. Besides a large mansion built within the town by Hindurāo after the model of the famous palace of Deeg, and several good houses belonging to the relations of the Ghāṭge family, a large mansion or *vaḍa* stands at a small distance of the town, built by a Rājā of Kolhāpūr at a cost of about a lakh of rupees. Of the public buildings the most important are three large rest-houses, a fine school-house, three temples, one sacred to Rāma called Rāmamandīr, a second dedicated to Māruti, a third to Rādhākṛṣṇa. The temples receive a cash allowance of Rs. 656-15-0 from Government. Every year in *Kartik* or October-November a fair or *urus* is held in honour of Saibi Pir. The fair is attended by about 2,000 people from Kolhāpūr and the neighbouring villages, and the sale of grain, cloth, fruit, and sweetmeats amounts to Rs. 2,000.

KALE.

Kale (Panhāḷā Peta ; 16° 40′ N ; 74° 00′ E ; p. 2,428,) is 15 miles west of Kolhāpūr railway station. The village is said to take its name from the goddess Kāli whom, according to a local legend, Dharma Rājā, the eldest of the Pānḍavās, slew on the hill near the village. Marks on the hill still make the outline of Dharma Rājā with his arrow fixed in Kāli's body. Every Monday a market is held at which the chief article sold is grain. The holiest temple which is dedicated to Dharma Rājā. is twenty-five feet long and twelve feet broad.

KANERI.

Kaneri (Karvīr T. ; 16° 35′ N ; 73° 25′ E ; p. 2,395), lies nine miles south of Kolhāpūr. The village is known for its Lingāyat monastery or *math* in a hamlet on a neighbouring hill. The monastery which is called Kaḍapācā Maṭh, belongs to a Lingayat Swāmi or ascetic and is surrounded by a stone wall. In the middle of the monastery is a temple of Sidheśvar, 20′ × 20′ × 30′ high Round the temple of Sidhēśvar are small shrines dedicated to Aḍkēśvar, Cakrēśvar, and Rudrapād with the sacred bull in front. The monastery has a total yearly income of Rs. 1,300. The head of the monastery has great influence and has between 5,000 and 6,000 Lingāyat disciples spread over Kolhāpūr, the Koṅkaṇ, Bombay, Mysore and Madras

KAPSHI.

Kapshi (Kagal T. ; 16° 15′ ; 74° 15′ E ; p. 3,362), is about twenty-four miles south of Kolhāpūr. The chief building is an old mosque 100 feet square and eight feet high, built of stone and mortar and plastered inside with stucco. *Kāpaśi* has a temple

dedicated to Āī-Sāheb, in memory of the pious Dvārakābāī Sāheb the wife of the well known Santājirao Ghorpaḍē, the Commander-in-Chief of the Marathas.

KASARDE.

Kasarde (Sahuwāḍi T.; 16° 25′ N; 73° 40′ E; p. 450), lies thirty-six miles north-west of Kolhāūr. On a hill, a mile and a half from the village, stands a temple 26′ × 13′ × 8′ high, sacred to Dhopēśwar whose image is said to be *Svayambhu* or self-made. According to a local legend, while a *vāṇī* of Karāḍ named Purvá was returning from the sea coast with a pack bullock, loaded with tin and iron, the animal strayed to the place where the self-made image of Dhopēśhvar was laying. The Vāṇī followed his bullock and passed the night where the bullock had stopped. On rising next morning the vāṇī found that the tin and iron had turned into gold. In return for this gift of wealth the vāṇī built a temple to Dhopēśvar with part of the money, and that it might be afterwards used in completing the spire, he buried the rest in a corner to the north of the temple. Dhopēśvar issued an order forbidding any one digging up the treasure and it has never since been touched. The temple has an yearly income of Rs. 400 derived from the whole village of Kāsarḍē and part of the village of Jāvaḷī.

KHIDRAPUR.

Khidrapur (*Shirol* T.; 16° 40′ N; 74° 35′ E; p. 1,400), lies on the Kṛṣṇā about twelve miles south-east of Shiroḷ and eight miles to the south of Jaisingpur railway station on the Miraj-Kolhapur meter gauge line. The chief interest of the village is the temple of Kopēśvar which lies in the centre of the village and is 103½′ × 65′ × 52′ high to the top of the dome. The walls are made of black stone richly carved and the dome is covered with stucco. To the main building are attached two richly sculptured *mandaps* or vestibules. In the vestibule are two concentric squares the outer with twenty and the inner with twelve pillars all richly carved. In front of the temple is a round roofless structure called the *Svarga Mandap* (Heavenly Hall), on the plan of what would be a twenty-rayed star, only that the spaces for four of the rays are occupied by four entrances. On the outside on a low screen wall stand thirty-six short pillars, while inside is a circle of twelve columns. Further from the temple is a *nagārkhānā* (drum-chamber). The outer walls of the shrine are broken at oblique angles as in the Nilanga Hemadpanti temple. By the south door of the temple is a Devgirī Yādav inscription of Sinhadev in Devnāgari dated *Sak* 1135 (A.D. 1213) granting the village of Khanḍāleśvar in Miraj for the worship of Kopeśvar. Besides this, there is a Jain temple. which is much smaller, the vestibule being twenty-one feet square inside with a small antechamber and shrine, the outer wall of the shrine being in the star-shaped Hemāḍpanti plan. The building is of black stone and the pillars of the hall are richly carved. Land valued at a yearly assessment of Rs. 109-6-0 is granted rent-free to the priests of Kopēśvar. Every year in *Māgh* (January-February) a fair is held, attended by about 3,000 people.

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Places.

KHOCHI OR KHODSI.

Khochi or Khodshi (Hatkaṇangaḷē T.; 17° 15′ N; 74° 10′ E; p. 2,397), lies on the Varṇā thirteen miles north-east of Kolhāpūr, and nine miles north of Hatkaṇangaḷē railway station. The village is known for the temple of Bhairav Ksētrapāl, an incarnation of Śiva with his wife Jogēśvari by his side. The body of the building is a square of fifteen feet, built of stone, with a portico seventy-five feet long and fifteen feet broad in front. The temple is said to have been built in about 1680 A.D. by an *inamdar* of Cāvrē named Sultānrao Śinde in the Hatkaṇangaḷē taluka. At the yearly fair held in *Caitra* among a number of poles or *shasan kathis* which parade the fair, the place of honour is given to Sultānrao pole. The fair is attended by about 10,000 people.

KODOLI.

Kadoli (Panhāḷā T.; 16° 50′ N; 74° 10′ E; p. 7,597) a large thriving village in the Varṇā valley, lies about fourteen miles north of Kolhāpūr and a mile and a half from the river. It is well supplied with river and spring water. The chief temple, which is dedicated to Dattātrēya, is 180 feet square. Every year on the dark 5th of *Magh* or January-February a fair is held attended by about 1,500 people.

KOLHAPUR CITY.

Kolhapur City (16° 42′ N; 74° 14′ E, Ht. 1870 ft.: 25·7 Sq. miles; p 1,36,835), stands on rising ground on the south bank of the river Pancagangā, bounded on the north by the Pancagangā river, on the east by the boundaries of Ucgāon village, on the south by the boundaries of Kaḷambē and Pācgaon villages and on the west by the boundaries of Navē pālingē, Pāḍaḷi and Śingṇāpūr villages and by the Pancaganga river.

Climate and Rainfall.

Except from March to May when it is hot, the climate is temperate and healthy. From March to May hot winds prevail, but the sea breeze which begins in the afternoon makes the evenings cool and pleasant. Often, when the heat becomes very oppressive, there is a shower in the evening which brings down the temperature immediately

Importance.

Kolhāpūr derives its importance from its past political associations and its position as a great commercial, religious and educational centre. It was the capital of the former Kolhāpūr State, a premier state in the Deccan, and was also the seat of the Residency for Deccan States. Its importance as a commercial centre is well known. Kolhāpūr is a big market for jaggery (*Gul*) of which the district is a very large producer. This jaggery is supplied to various parts of India and is exported to different countries. As a religious centre, Kolhāpūr is known as the Dakshin Kāshi or the Kāshi of the South, the ancient temple of Mahālakṣmī being the main attraction. The city has two Arts and Science Colleges, one Law College, one B. T. College and one Commerce College. It has also 20 High Schools. There are numerous cheap hostel facilities. Kolhāpūr has

produced many well-known artists and sculptors and it has also been the birth place of Marathi film industry. It has been a sports centre and has produced many well-known wrestlers, cricketers and sportsmen who have represented India in international contests. Although mainly a residential and commercial town till lately, Kolhapur is now fast becoming an industrial town with emphasis on the engineering industry.

History.

Kolhāpūr, or as it seems to have been formerly called Karvīr, is probably one of the oldest religious and trade centres in western India. In Brāhmapuri Hill, near the centre of the present city, have been found Buddhist coins which are believed to belong to the first century before Christ; a small crystal casket which is believed to have enclosed Buddhist relics of about the same age and a shattered model of a brass relic-shrine or daghoba whose shape also belongs to about the first century before Christ.[1] The discovery of a Shatakarni inscription probably of the first century after Christ at Banavasi in North Kanara and the known extent of the power of that dynasty in the North Deccan, make it probable that, as suggested by Professor Bhandarkar, Ptolemy's (A.D. 150) Hippokurh rejia Baleokuri refers to Kolhāpūr, the capital of king Vilvayakura, who from inscriptions is believed to have reigned about A.D. 150.

Recent excavations at Brahmapuri have revealed that "a city of well-built brick houses stood on the banks of the *Pancaganqā* river, when the Sātvahana (or Audhra according to the Purānas) Emperor, Gautamiputra Satkarṇī ruled in the Deccan about A.D. 106-130. The beginnings of this city were probably laid in the preceeding one or two centuries.[2]" Before the temple of Mahālakṣmī was built in the 7th or 8th century there appears to have been six centres of habitation or hamlets These were (1) Brāhmapuri where though the old city had declined, people continued to live, (2) Uttareshwar, which was a suburb of the old Brāhmapuri city. (3) Kholkhandobā which also was a suburb of the old Brāhmapuri city, (4) Rankālā which seems to have been a separate hamlet, (5) Padmāḷā on the banks of Padmāḷā lake and (6) Ravnēśvar which was a separate hamlet. These six centres continued their separate existence until the building of the Mahālakṣmī temple, which became the centre of Kolhāpūr city.[3] In former times this great temple was surrounded by a circle of shrines several of which lie buried many feet under ground Every pool of standing water was sacred and in the city and country round about there are many broken images of Brahman and Jain worship which are supposed to belong to temples destroyed by the Musalmans in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. According to Major Graham[4] in the eighth or ninth century an earthquake overturned many temples and buildings in Kolhāpūr. Among the traces of the

[1] Jour. B.B.R.A.S. XIV, 147-154.
[2] H.D. Sankalia and M. G. Dixit :—Excavations at Brahmapuri (Kolhapur) 1945-46,
[3] Kolhapur Nagarpalika—Centenary Souvenir—pp. 174-180,
[4] Graham's Kolhapur, 112.

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earthquake are the two underground temples of Khandobā and Kārtik Swāmi, over which houses have since been built In the old temple of Ambābāī the wall is of unequal height in different places, and the ground has passed through so many changes that the original level cannot be discovered. In digging the foundations of the high school in 1870, and in making other excavations, at a depth of over fifteen feet, stones slabs covered with strange figures, shrines and old inscriptions were found. In support of his statement that many of these changes are due to the action of an earthquake Major Graham refers[1] to several small mounds or upheavings near the city and to the discovery in 1849 of the bed of the Panchagangā seventy feet above the level of the present bed. In the Karavīr or Kolhāpūr Mahātmya[2] or account of the greatness of Kolhāpūr, Kolhāpūr is mentioned as the Kāśi or Benares of the South. According to local tradition, when the Jains were building the temple of Ambābāī on Brahmapuri hill a fort was made by a Kshatri Rājā Jaysing who held his court at Bid about nine miles west of Kolhāpūr. In the twelfth century the Kolhāpūr fort was the scene of a battle between the Kālabhurya or Kālachurya who had conquered the Kalyani Chālukyas and become the ruler of the Deccan, and the Śilāharas of Kolhāpūr, the feudatories of the Chālukyas. Bhoja Raja II (1178-1209) of the Kolhāpūr Śilāharas made Kolhāpūr his capital but the headquarters of the State were soon after moved to Panhāḷā about twelve miles to the North-west, and remained there till the country passed to the Bahamani Kings. The Bahāmani Sultān Allaudin Hasan Bahmon Shah (1347-1359) towards the end of his reign made a conquest of Goa and Dābhol and while returning from this campaign passed through Karād and Kolhāpūr where he establihed the rule of the muslims. Kolhāpūr is next mentioned as the place where Mahmudd Gawān (1469) encamped during rainy season in his expedition against Viśāḷgad.[3] Under the Bijāpūr Kings, from 1489 till it came under Śivāji about 1659, owing to its nearness to the strong fort of Panhāḷā, a Bijāpūr Officer was stationed at Kolhāpūr. Under the Marathas, especially after 1730, when it became independent of Sātārā, Kolhāpūr rose in importance. In 1782 the seat of Government was moved from Panhāḷā to Kolhāpur. Up to this time Kolhāpūr's only protection against robbers and enemies was a mud wall. During the feuds between the Paṭvardhans and the Kolhāpūr State (1773-1810) which filled the latter years of the eighteenth century, a stone wall thirty feet high and ten to twenty-six feet thick, was built more than 1½ miles in circumstance. At equal distances the wall had forty-five bastions with battlements and loopholes and outside a deep and wide ditch with a rough glacis. In the wall were six gateways, three of them with stout wooden gates, bristling with long iron spikes to keep off elephants. After the river reservoirs

[1] Graham's Kolhapur 317.
[2] Though it probably embodies old legends and traditions the Karvir Mahatmya or the Greatness of Kolhapur was written as late as 1730.
[3] Briggs Ferishta, II., 482-485.

and the wards to which they led, the gates were named the Gaṅgā, Raṅkāḷā, Vāruṇitīrth, Āditvār, Maṅgaḷvār and Śanivār, The entrance to each gate was across a drawbridge. The gates used to be shut at eleven in the evening and opened by four in the morning.[1]. When the town was growing in the eighteenth century the people built houses without any order wherever sites could be had, and the streets were narrow, often not broad enough for two carts to pass. As the city increased in size weekly markets came to be held outside the walls. Beyond the walls ten subrubs or *peṭhs* were founded. After the names of the founders or of the presiding god of the place, or of the days on which weekly markets were held, the new suburbs were called Ravivār Somvār, Maṅgaḷvār, Budhvār, Śukravār and Sanivār and Uttrēśvar, Candrēśvar, Kēśāpūr and Logmāpur. In these suburbs the lanes were wide and were planted here and there with trees. In the eighties of the nineteenth century to improve the air and health of the city the walls were pulled down and the ditch filled.

The modern development of Kolhāpūr can be said to have started when the British obtained political suzerainty in 1844 and built the Residency during 1845-48. The New Palace was built near the Residency in 1877. The chiefs and *jāgirdārs* also began building their mansions in this area. Then came the railway in 1891-92. The site for the station was selected beyond the Jayantinālā, about 2 miles from the city. The station exerted a considerable pull on the city and development of the city towards the station started. The Śāhupuri colony was started near the station in 1895 and was completed in 1920. Then came the Laxmipuri colony in 1926-27 between Shāhupuri and the city. In 1929, the Rajārāmpuri Colony was started. In 1933, the area between the railway line and Rājārāmpuri was developed and was called the Sykes Extension. In the city, fields and vacant sites came to be developed as population increased. From 1884, efforts were made to fill up the numerous lakes and tanks in the city. The Kapiltīrth was first filled up and a vegetable market was established on the site. Indrakuṇḍ was also filled up. The Mahār *talāo* Kumbhār *talāo*, Umak, Petala, Maskuti, and Ravṇēśwar, were gradually filled up. Khāsbāg, Sākoli, Varuṇitīrth, Ravaṇēśvar, Belbāg, Udyamnagar and Maskuti *talāo* areas came to be developed into residential areas all of which except Khāsbāg and Sākoli are very recent development, i.e., of 1944-45 onwards.

[1] With four of the six gates some great event is connected. By the Ganga gate, which opened on the Panchaganga river, no corpse except one of a member of the royal family was allowed to be carried. By the Aditvar gate, in 1857 the second band of rebels led by Firangu Shinda entered the town, broke into the jail, and set the prisoners free. By the Mangalvar gate, in 1857 the rebels of the 27th Kolhapur Native Infantry tried in vain to enter the city. At the Shanvar gate, which is said to have been built by Ali Adil Shah I of Bijapur (1557–1579), a hard battle was fought in 1800 between the Raja of Kolhapur and the Patwardhans under Ramchandra, son of the well known Parshurambhau. In this gate, after a seige of two months a breach was made scaling ladders were applied, and the city was on the point of being taken when an intrigue at the Poona Court suddenly obliged the assailants to leave the city. In 1858 by breaking open the Shanvar gate, Sir LeGrand Jacob entered the city and arrested the rebels under Firangu Shinda, who was shot by the treasury guard of the Kolhapur infantry.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

KOLHAPUR.

Wards.

Kolhāpūr City is divided into five wards. The area comprised in each ward is as follows : —

Ward.		Localities included.
A	...	Rankāḷā lake, Padmārāje Garden areas, Cattle market, Sākoli area, Kapiltīrth area, Bābujamāl Dargā area, Gavatācī Manḍai, Varuntīrth area, Ubhā Māruti area, Phirangāi area.
B	...	Mahālaxmi Temple, Khāsbāg, Palace Theatre, Sāṭhamāri, Old Palace, Rājārām, College area, Gujari, Subhāṣa Cauk, Old Race Course, Subhāśa Nagar, Jawāhar Nagar, Sambhāji Nagar, Kaḷamba Jail.
C	...	Municipal Office, Shivāji Market, Bindu Cauk, Town Hall, Laxmipuri, Gujari, Akbar Mohallā, Sandhyā Talkies area, Thorlā Mahārvāḍ.
D	...	Gangāves, Śāhu Udhyan area, Padmārājē Vidyalaya area, Brahmapuri area, Uttarēśvar, Śhukravār Peṭh.
E	...	Śāhupuri, Rajārāmpuri, Sykes Extension, Tārābai Park area, Temblaivāḍī, Jādhavvāḍī, Bhosalēvāḍī, Kasbā Bāvaḍā, Kadamvāḍī.

The number of properties and their annual letting value is as follows : —

Ward.		No. of properties.	Annual letting value.
A	...	3,690	8,76,450
B	..	3,274	7,97,601
C	..	3,226	16,00,114
D	.	2,909	6,97,837
E	...	4,521	21,52,653
Total	...	17,620	61,24,655

Area and Population.

In 1957, the total limits of the Kolhāpūr Municipal Borough covered 25·7 square miles. The total population according to the 1951 census was 1,36,835 of which 71,360 were males and 65,475 females. According to their livelihood the population was distributed as follows : —

Agricultural classes—

	Males.	Females.
(i) Cultivators, cultivating labourers and their dependents.	5,681	4,881
(ii) Non-cultivating owners of land, rent receivers and their dependents.	3,138	3,285

Non-agricultural classes—

(Persons—including dependents) who derive their principal means of livelihood from—

	Males.	Females.
(*i*) Production other than cultivation.	15,945	14,056
(*ii*) Commerce ...	12,404	11,705
(*iii*) Transport ..	3,285	2,760
(*iv*) Other services and miscellaneous sources.	30,967	28,788
	62,601	57,309

The distribution of the population according to the languages spoken* was as follows :—

Marāṭhi—1,16,702 ; Kannāḍa—3,687 ; Urdū—11,773 ; Gūjarātī—1,890 ; Telūgū—1,011 ; Siṇdhī—150 ; Hindī—494 ; Rājasthānī—491 . Konkaṇī—103 ; Tāmil—301 ; Hindustāni—3 ; Kacchi—70 ; Portuguese—7 ; Tūlū—24 ; Malayālam—39 ; Punjābī—13 ; English—35 ; Naipali 13 ; Bengali—16 ; Pashto—5 ; Chinese—6 ; Persian—1 ; Oriya—1 .

The population of the Kolhāpūr Municipal area is distributed as follows according to the religious they profess ; Hindus—1,18,223 ; Muslims—12,232 ; Jains—4,809 . Christians—1,538 ; Zoroastrians —15 ; Buddhists —14 ; Sikhs —4.

Kolhapur City. Municipal Borough. *History.*

The civic affairs of Kolhāpūr City are managed by the Kolhāpūr Municipal Borough. The beginnings of municipal administration can be traced back to 1830 when the Chatrapatī ordered the setting up of an organisation to sweep the roads and to recover the cost by the levy of a tax on houses. In 1850, the Government of India decided to establish municipalities in various towns. and the Resident of Kolhāpūr formed in 1854 a Municipal Committee for Kolhāpūr consisting of six members—two officials and four non-officials. A grant of Rs. 3,000 was made for its expenditure. In 1869, instead of the Government grant, certain items of income viz , octroi, *pankhoti*, tobacco tax, fish *maktā*, snuff *maktā*, bhāng and opium *maktā*, lease of space in the moat were handed over to the municipality with a view to increasing its income. In 1871, the number of members of the committee was increased to 30. A house-tax was levied in 1873. The Assistant Political Agent was made the President of the municipality and its General Body met every quarter. The actual work was supposed to be done by the Managing

* Mother tongue.

Committee but as it was found that the committee was not working satisfactorily, all powers were vested in the President in 1875. From 1881, however, the General Body was being called and quarterly accounts were presented to it. In 1884, there was a move in Bombay Province to have Local Self-Government. This had repercussions in Kolhāpūr also and in 1886 a committee was appointed to reconstitute the Municipality.

In 1889, the Kolhāpūr Municipal Rules were framed. According to these Rules, the municipality was to consist of ex-officio members and members appointed by Government, the number of appointed members being at least double that of ex-officio members. From 1904 to 1920, the municipality was suspended due to unsatisfactory working and all powers were vested in the Administrator. In 1920, the municipality was reconstituted with 47 constituencies and caste-wise electorates and it came into office in 1921. Matters, however, did not improve and in 1924, it was again dissolved. In 1925, the Kolhāpūr State Municipal Act, 1925, modelled on the lines of the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901, was enacted. The municipality was to have 40 members of whom 20 were appointed by Government and 20 were elected. The first body under this Act was formed in 1926. In 1944, the Kolhāpūr Municipal Boroughs Act, 1944, was prepared on the lines of the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925, and it was applied to the Kolhāpūr municipality in the same year. The municipality continued under this Act until the merger of the Kolhāpūr State with Bombay in 1949.

Growth of Municipal Area.

The area of the municipality has increased considerably since its formation. In 1844, it is said to have exceeded four and half square miles and in 1874 it is mentioned as 1,132 acres 29 gunthas. Additions were made to the area from time to time and in 1957 it measured 25·7 square miles.

Constitution.

The Kolhāpūr municipality has been constituted under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925 as amended from time to time. All the councillors are elected on adult franchise and the total number of seats is 44, of which 37 are general, three are reserved for Scheduled Castes and four for women. The city is divided into 12 constituencies. The distribution of seats according to wards is as follows :—

No. of Ward.	Name of Ward.	Total No. of seats.	Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes.	Seats reserved for Women.
1	2	3	4	5
I	A Ward .	4	....	....
II	A Ward ..	4	1	To rotate in Wards I and II beginning with Ward II.

No. of Ward.	Name of Ward.	Total No. of seats.	Seats reserved for Scheduled castes.	Seats reserved for Women.
1	2	3	4	5
III	B Ward ..	4	....	....
IV	B Ward ..	4	1	To rotate in Wards IV and III beginning with Ward IV.
V	C Ward ..	4	....	....
VI	C and a small portion of D.	4	....	1
VII	D Ward ..	4	....	....
VIII	D and a small portion of A.	4	1	To rotate in Wards VIII and VII beginning with Ward No. VIII.
IX	E Ward ..	3	....	1
X	E Ward ..	3	....	....
XI	E Ward ..	3	1	To rotate in Wards XI and X beginning with Ward No. XI.
XII	E Ward ..	3	....	.. 1
		44	4	3

The term of office of the councillors is four years, which may, however, be extended by the State Government for a term not exceeding in the aggregate five years. The President and the Vice-President are elected for such period as may be determined by the General Body. The main function of the President is to convene meetings of the General Body and to preside over them. He has also to watch the financial and executive administration of the municipality and to exercise supervision and control over the municipal staff. The Vice-President is to discharge the functions of the President in his absence.

The municipal authorities charged with the carrying out of the provisions of the Municipal Boroughs Act are .—

(1) General Body, (2) Chief Officer, (3) Standing Committee.

The Chief Officer is the head of the executive administration and exercises all executive powers under the Act subject in certain cases to the approval or sanction of the Standing Committee or the General Body. In addition to the Chief Officer, the municipality can appoint an Engineer and a Health Officer. None of these three officers can be removed from office, reduced or suspended except by the assent of at least two-thirds of the whole number of councillors and none of these officers is punishable with fine.

The following are the principal departments of the Kolhāpūr municipality with the designations of their heads :—

Accounts Office .. Accountant.

Audit Department ... Auditor.

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Chief Officer's office	...	Chief Officer.
Engineering Department	...	Engineer.
Health Department	...	Medical Officer of Health.
Lands and Estates	...	Manager of Municipal properties.
Octroi Department	...	Superintendent of Octroi.
Tax Department	..	Superintendent of Taxes.

The Standing Committee is to consist of not more than 12 councillors and not less than six. The committee is elected every year by the General Body.

Powers and functions of the Municipality.

Under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, the Kolhāpūr municipality has the power to levy taxes with the sanction of Government. It has also the power to recover these taxes by coercive measures, if necessary. It has power to raise loans with the sanction of Government. It can create posts when the additional burden on the municipal funds does not exceed Rs. 100 per mensem. For posts where the burden exceeds this amount the sanction of the Divisional Officer is necessary. The functions of the municipality are divided into two categories :-- Obligatory and Discretionary. Obligatory functions include maintenance of streets, gutters, provision of street lights, arrangements for sweeping and cleaning, provision of fire-fighting, disposal of dead bodies, provision of medical relief, public vaccination and so on Discretional functions include providing public parks, and gardens, running transport, provision of electricity, provision of dwelling houses for the staff and for poor people and so on. Some municipalities are authorised under the Primary Education Act to run primary schools. The Kolhāpūr Municipal Borough is so authorised and it has a Municipal School Board which runs primary schools in the city.

Receipts and Expenditure.

The following schedule shows the income of the Kolhāpūr Municipal Borough during the year 1956-57 :—

			Rs.
(1) Octroi	...	...	17,60,850
(2) Toll tax	...	...	31,725
(3) Transit tax	...	...	3,842
(4) Tax on houses	..	...	4,51,952
(5) General Sanitary Cess	...	...	23,708
(6) Special Sanitary Cess	...	...	60,763
(7) Education Cess	...	...	1,64,572
(8) Tax on vehicles	..	...	22,940
(9) Miscellaneous	...	...	21,386
	Total	...	25,41,748

Taxes.	Rs.
Realization under Special Acts ...	4,134
Revenue derived from municipal property and power	3,21,661
Grants and contributions	3,02,525
Interest on deposits	21,651
Miscellaneous	1,29,494
	33,21,213

The following schedule shows the expenditure of the Kolhāpūr municipality during 1956-57 :—

	Rs.
(1) General Administration	1,13,768
(2) Octroi Department	1,64,046
(3) Collection of taxes	79,531
(4) Octroi refund	85,686
(5) Other refund	10,830
(6) Pension gratuity	41,668
(7) Public safety	2,08,554
(8) General and special conservancy ...	6,35,747
(9) Hospitals and dispensaries ..	1,05,951
(10) Public Health	50,450
(11) Prevention of epidemics and disinfection.	30,571
(12) Water supply (public stand posts) ...	56,816
(13) Drainage	1,02,398
(14) Public works	7,27,143
(15) Markets	56,305
(16) Public gardens . . .	26,120
(17) Public instruction	3,52,654
(18) Miscellaneous (public health and public conveniences). ...	14,047
(19) Miscellaneous	60,5737
	29,29,161

The incidence of taxation amounted to Rs. 18·57 per head per year and the incidence of total income of the municipality per head per year was Rs. 24·27 during 1956-57.

The following were the rates for the House tax, Education Cess and General and Special Sanitary Cess :—

House tax.—8 per cent. of the net annual rental value of the property.

Education cess.—3 per cent. of the gross annual rental value of the property.

General Sanitary cess.—This cess is levied on houses where there is no space for building a latrine. The rates are based on house-tax as follows :—

House Tax.		Rate of General Sanitary Cess.		
		Rs.	a.	p.
1.	Below Rs. 3	0	8	0
2.	Rs. 3 to 4	1	0	0
3.	Rs. 4 to 6	2	0	0
4.	Rs. 6 to 8	3	0	0
5.	Rs. 8 and above	4	0	0

Special Sanitary Cess.—Rs. 15 per seat per year.

Roads.

Roads emanate from Kolhāpūr to Ratnāgirī, Phonḍā, Gagan Bāvḍā and Gārgoṭī. The Poona-Bangalore National Highway (NH 4) passes through the eastern tip of the municipal area and Kolhāpūr is an important halt thereon. The total length of roads including lanes, in the present Kolhāpūr municipal limits is 102 miles. Of this 37·3 miles were asphalted by the end of 1956-57. Most of the streets are lighted by electric lights and important squares are lighted with mercury vapour lamps.

The road system of Kolhāpūr is such that the main roads do not converge at a central point. There is a network of roads joining different localities. There are four roads leading into the city proper from the Poona-Bangalore National Highway. One road (the Śāhu Road or Station Road) starts from Kavḷenākā leading straight into the city from Poona. This road passes along the railway station and Venus corner and goes straight to the statue of Śāhu Mahārāj and further on crosses Bhāusiṅgjī Road near the Power House and then goes on to Śivāji bridge on Pañcagaṅgā River. The Śivājī Road branches off from the Śāhu Road at Venus corner and goes along Wilson Bridge to the Statue of Āīsāhēb Mahārāj, then turns to the left and goes to Bindū Cauk, again turns right and goes to Śivājī Cauk then, goes straight to Pāpācī Tikṭī, passes through Gaṅgāves goes to Raṅkāḷaves where it turns right and then proceeds to Raṅkāḷā Tower and then goes on to Phulevāḍī. From Phulevāḍī it leaves the municipal limits to proceed towards Gagan Bāvḍā. This is the most important road in the city as it goes right through the city. It is lined with shops up to Raṅkāḷaves.

The second main road starts from the Poona-Bangalore National Highway near the level-crossing and goes along the Northern boundary of Rājārāmpurī, passes through Bāgal Cauk, crosses Subhāṣa Road near Sandhyā Talkies, goes through Bindū Cauk and joins Bhāusiṅgjī Road, near old Palace. This

road is named Rājārām Road. The third road in the city starts from the Poona Bangalore National Hhighway near the southern end of the city, passes along the southern boundary of Rājārāmpurī and joins the Subhāṣa road near Saṭhmārī. A portion of this road is known as the Old Kagal Road and a portion as Saṭhmārī road. This road is not in general use. The fourth road into the city from the Poonā-Bāṇgalore National Highway is the Bhāskarrao Jādhav road starting from Kāvḷē nākā and passing through Jamkhīṇḍikar Tikṭī (square) to join the Bāvdā road near the New Palace.

Inside the city there are important roads going from north to south. The Subhāsa road starts from the Śāhū road a little below the statue of Śāhū Mahārāj and passes through Laxmīpurī, Sandhya Talkies square and goes up to the Yellāmā dip. Up to Sandhyā Talkies this road is lined with shops, many of which deal in automobile spare parts. The Karmavir Bhaurao Pātil road is almost parallel to Subhāṣa Road. It starts from a little beyond the statue of Śāhū Mahārāj and goes along the square of the statue of Śāhū Mahārāj where it joins the Śivājī road which comes from the station and proceeds to Bindu cauk. The square of the statue of Āisaheb Mahārājā is an important shopping centre and has five cinema theatres located within a short distance of one another. Another important north-south road is the Bhāusingjī road. It starts from the old Palace and passes through Śivājī Cauk and goes to the civil hospital and the Power House and from these goes on to Bāvdā and the sugar mills. From the Power House onwards it is also known as the Bāvdā Road. It is an important shopping centre up to the District Local Board Office and many chemists's shops are situated on it. Another important road running parallel to the Bhāusingjī road is the Mahādwār road. It starts from Pāpāci Tikṭī (Pāpā's square) and goes along the main gate Mahādwār of the Mahālaxmi temple, passes the Binkhāmbī temple of Gaṇapatī and goes towards Paṇyācā Khajinā (water reservoir). The portion beyond the Gaṇapatī temple is also known as New Māhādwār road. The Māhādwār road is an important shopping centre and shops of all kinds line this road.

The other important roads are as follows:—one starts from Pāpācī Tikṭī, goes along the southern wing of the municipal office, crosses Bāusingjī road and goes on to join the Śivājī Road. Betel leaf shops tobacco and snuff shops and the general mutton market are on this road. The road is called Dāsrām road.

Another important road is the Tārābāī road starting from Māhādwār (main gate of Mahalaxmi temple) and going towards Rājghāt on the Rankāḷā tank. Śripatrao Śinde road starts from the Binkhāmbī Gaṇapatī temple (Jośhirao's Gaṇapatī) and goes to Ubhā Mārutī through Varuṇtīrtha and further goes on to Sandhyamaṭh in Rankāḷā tank. The Rankāḷā road starts

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from Rājghāṭ and goes along the Raṅkāḷā tank to Wāśīnākā and thence towards Rādhānagarī. Many people go along this road for an evening walk. The Pahilwān Hujarē road starts from Waśīnākā and goes to Pāṇyāchā khajinā (old water reservoir) there joining the road going out to Gārgoṭī. The Dēval road starts from Bindū Cauk and goes to Khāsbāg via statue of Allādiyā Khān. The Naṭasamrāṭ Keśavrao Bhonsale road starts from the statue of Allādiyā Khān and goes to the temple of Gaṇapatī (Jośirao's Gaṇapatī) passing through Subhāṣ Cauk (Mirajkar Tikṭi). The *Vastād* Bajaparao Mānē road starts near Subhāṣ Cauk and goes to Pāṇyāçā Khajinā (old water reservoir) and thence becomes Kaḷambā road, to go towards Gārgoṭī. Daulū Māster road starts from Subhāṣ Cauk and goes to the statue of Mahātmā Gāndhī in Varuṇatirth. In Laxmīpurī, there is one road running parallel to Subhās road. This road called the Raosāhēb Māḷi road, starts opposite Malabar bakery on the Śivājī road and goes to Rawiwār Gate. Three roads running east-west cut this road and join Subhāṣ road. Master Vināyak road starts from Śāhū Talkies, the Comrade Dāṅge road starts from Padmā Talkies and the Karmavīr Viṭṭhal Rāmjī Śindē road starts from the Satyānārāyaṇ Tālīm road. All these join the Subhāṣ road. There is a wholesale grain market on the Comrade Dāṅge road and these three roads and the Raosāhēb Māḷī road are the venue for the weekly bazar. The Gujari road starts from Bhāūsiṅgjī road and goes on to join the Mahādwār road. This road is lined with Jeweller's shops. The Mahātma Phule road starts from Gāṅgāwes and goes to Śivājī Pool.

In Śāhūpurī there are seven main roads running parallel to the Śāhū road and starting from the Śivājī road. The 'Gur' market is situated in Śāhūpurī and first main road is known as Vyāpāra Peṭh and the other main roads are numbered one to six.

In Rājārāmpurī, there are four main roads running north-south and thirteen cross lanes running east-west.

In Tārābāī Park there is a road leading from the Maṇḍaī corner on Śāhū road to Jamkhiṇḍikar Tikṭī via Kiraṇ Bungalow This road is named Major General Thorāt road. Another road goes from Jamkhiṇḍikar Tikṭi to the Collector's office and then goes on to join the Bāvadā road. To the North this road goes to Line Bazar.

Bridges.

There are two bridges across the Pancagaṅgā river and five bridges across the Jayantī Nālā. There are also two causeways across the Jayantī Nālā. There is one bridge across Gomatī Nālā. The two bridges across Pancagaṅgā river are the Śivaji Pool which takes one to the Kolhāpūr-Ratnāgirī Road. and the Pancagaṅgā bridge which takes to the Poona-Bangalore National Highway across the river. Śivājī Pool is a stone

masonry structure with five arches. It is 411 feet long, and its height is 69 feet above the bed of the river. It was built between 1874 and 1878. The Pancagaṅgā bridge is a steel structure of the girder deck type with seven pillars. It is 5-10 feet long, its height above the bed of the river is 40 feet.

Of the five bridges across the Jayanti nālā, one takes the Bāvaḍā road (Bhāūsiṅgjī) across the nālā ; another known as Juna Pool or old bridge, takes the Śāhū road across the nālā ; the Wilson bridge takes the Śivājī road across the nālā ; the Ravivār Pool takes Rājārām road across the nālā and the new bridge near the proposed Hutātmā Park takes the Sāṭhamārī road across the nālā.

The first bridge is a stone masonry structure with three arches. It is 91 feet long and 31 feet high. It has slightly ornamental parapets. It was built in 1876. The Junā Pool or Śāhū bridge is an arched bridge with cantiliver girders for footpaths. It is 127 feet in length and its height is 21 feet from the bed of the nālā. It was built in 1875. The Wilson bridge is a stone masonry structure with three arches. It is 87 feet in length and its height is 21 feet from the bed of the nālā. It was built in 1927 at a cost of Rs. 70,000. The Ravivār Pool is also a stone masonry structure with three arches. It is 103 feet long and its height above the bed of the nālā is 24 feet. It was built in 1879. The bridge near the proposed Hutātmā Park is a R.C.C. deck type bridge with three arches. It is 76 feet long and its height from the bed of the nālā is 15·5 feet. It was built in 1953. The bridge across the Gomati Nālā is near this bridge on the same road. It is also a R. C. C. deck type bridge with two arches built in 1953. Its length is 44 feet and height 13·5 feet.

Water supply.

Kolhāpūr city gets its water from two sources—Kaḷambā tank and the Bhogāvtī river. The Kaḷambā tank is about three miles from the city. It is formed by building a bund between two ridges and impounding the water of the Kātyāyanī valley. The bund was built between 1881-83 and its height was increased in 1894.

The water was taken through an aqueduct to a reservoir just outside Maṅgaḷwar Peṭh and from there distributed to the city. The water was not filtered or treated till 1946, when a filter house was built on rising ground beyond the old race course of Padmāḷā. The use of Kātyāyanī water in the city dates back to 1792 when a rich resident of Poona named Baburao Keśav Thākur or Khatrī was persuaded to bring water from Katyāyanī to supply Māhālaxmī's temple, and in time the water began to be used by all in the city. The water of the Kaḷambā tank is pure and wholesome and is filtered and chlorinated.

Kaḷambā water is available only to a portion of the city. To meet the growing needs of the city it was necessary to find other sources of water supply. The Pañcagaṅgā river was the

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nearest source available. When the new extensions of Śāhūpurī and Rājārāmpurī were laid down, it was necessary to supply water to them. A pumping station was, therefore, established near Bāpaṭ camp and the water was taken to the Vikramsinh Reservoir on the Temblāī hill between 1927 and 1930. The water was supplied to Śāhūpurī, Tārābāi Park area, new Palace, Residency etc. In course of time, this source was found to be inadequate and also liable to contamination from the sewers of the city. Between 1941 and 1947, therefore, a scheme to improve the water supply of the city was undertaken. According to this scheme the aqueduct of the Kalaṁbā tank was improved to prevent loss through seepage and a filter house to purify the water was established. The pumping station near Bāpaṭ camp was stopped and instead a new pumping station near Bāliṅgē, a village about three and a half miles from Kolhāpūr, was established on the Bhogāvatī river and this water was taken to a reservoir on the Cambukhāḍi hillock and from there was distributed to the city. A filter house was also established at Bāliṅgē. The whole scheme cost about Rs. 30 lakhs and was planned to meet the needs of a population of two and a half lakhs. With the completion of the Rādhānagarī dam, there is sufficient water in the Bhogāvatī river throughout the year and the water supply is adequate to meet the growing needs of the city.

The water works are maintained by Government. Distribution is also done by Government. Water is supplied through private connections and through municipal public stand-posts. Water is generally available for all the 24 hours for private connections.

Formerly, the water of Raṅkāḷā tank was supplied through taps and was otherwise used for drinking and other purposes. In 1883, a new-cut-stone dam higher and stronger than the old dam was built on the city side. New pipes were laid and water was distributed by stand-cocks eighty or ninety feet apart. The use of Raṅkāḷā water for bathing or washing was forbidden.[1] The use of Raṅkāḷā water was however, discontinued later on and at present it is mainly used for irrigation. Ḍhobis use the tank for washing clothes and residents of the neighbourhood use it for bathing and washing. In addition to Raṅkāḷā there were formerly nine other tanks or lakes the water of which was used for washing and bathing.[1] All these lakes, except the Koṭitirth are now filled up and converted into residential and other places. The Koṭitirth is, however, still used for bathing and washing

In Rājārāmpurī, there was no piped water supply till 1954. Bore wells were being used for suplying water till then. The water of these bore wells was slightly brackish. With the laying of pipes in this area, the bore wells have gone out of use.

[1] Old District Gazetteer.

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In the newly included hamlets of Kadamwāḍī, Bhosalēwāḍī and Tembläīwāḍī there is still no piped water supply. Well water is used in these places. There is also a small lake at Kadamwāḍī. In Bāvḍā there is piped water supply. In addition there is one lake, the water of which is used for washing and bathing.

Drainage.

There is no underground drainage in the city and drainage is mainly by surface drains. The drains are let into the Jayanti nālā and the Pañcagaṅgā river. Drainage of A and D wards is mainly let into Pañcagaṅgā river. At some places, it is also used by agriculturists for manuring their fields. Drainage of Śāhūpurī, Rājārāmpurī, Laxmīpurī, Khāsbāg, C Ward and B Ward is mainly let into Jayanti nālā.

There is a proposal to have underground drainage for the city and plans and estimates for the same are being prepared (1956).

Gardens.

There are two gardens maintained by Government and five maintained by the municipality. The two Government gardens are the Town Hall garden and the garden behind the Jain hostel. The Town Hall garden was constructed in 1870 and has to-day many old trees and some special varieties of plants. There is a glass house and a band stand. In the garden is siutated the attractive Town Hall building which now houses a Museum. There is a beautiful fountain and a marble bust of Śivājī There is a small barrack like structure which houses the office of the Garden Superintendent. There is a temple of Māhādeva at the southern end. The civil courts are also situated within this area but are near the road and do not obstruct the beauty of the garden. The garden is a real beauty spot and is perhaps the coolest spot in Kolhapur on account of the shade of many old trees.

The other Government garden is on the same road about two furlongs to the north. It has a beautiful equestrain statue of Prince Śivājī. There are many flower-trees and seasonal flower-plants.

Of the five municipal gardens, the Padmāraje park is near the Rāṅkāḷā tank. It has well-trimmed hedges and flower-beds. There is a section for children where swings, sea-saws, and other equipment are provided. There is a band-stand at one end A radio is also installed in the garden. In the centre of the garden there is a bronze bust of Rehmān, a well-known painter of Kolhapur. This garden is a favourite place for evening strolls.

The Śāhū Udyān is near the Gaṅgāwēs. This garden also has good hedges and flower-beds and a children's section. In the centre of this garden, there is a bust of Śāhū Chatrapati.

The Rājārām hall garden is in Rājārāmpurī. It has good rose beds and lawns. It is a favourite place for evening strolls

A radio is also installed and music is given in the evening. There is a bronze bust of Govindrao Tembe, a noted musician of Kolhāpūr.

The Tārābai Garden is situated in the Tārābai Park area. It has good flower beds, and a separate section for children.

The fifth garden is in the Line Bazar near the Māruti temple.

Markets.

There are four vegetable and fruit markets in the city and one main mutton and fish market. In addition there are 16 small mutton stalls distributed in different parts of the city. There is one main milk-stand where buffaloes are brought and milked in the presence of the customers. In addition there are three or four smaller milk-stands in other parts of the city. There is also one grain market. The annual income of the markets is about Rs. 1,30,000. The main vegetable and fruit markets is the Śivāji Market (Old Ferries Market) near Śivājī Cauk. There are many fruit stalls and wholesale business is also transacted here. There are some vegetable stalls and a few stalls for sale of *coḷī* pieces (*coḷkhaṇ*). During mango season, the market is full of mangoes coming in cases and baskets from Ratnāgiri district. The market has 163 built stalls and there is a separate shed for wholsale business. This market was opened in 1906.

The second important market is the Kapiltīrth market. It is mainly a vegetable market, both wholesale and retail. Butter, ghee and curds are sold here in a special shed. Grains are also sold here. The whole market is an open paved area except for the shed where butter, ghee and curds are sold. About 600 vendors come here daily. There is a well in this area and its water is used for cleaning the market. The other two vegetable and fruit markets are near Śukravār Peṭh *dharmaśālā* and in Rājārāmpurī. The latter named Bāgal Market is not very popular and there are hardly any vendor in it. There is a market called Gandhi Market in the Municipal office building itself. These shops are mainly grain and grocery shops. A number of vegetable vendors also sit in *cauk*, behind the building, and on the Bazargate Road for want of accommodation in the Śivājī market.

The main or general mutton and fish market is situated about a furlong from the municipal office on the Dāsrām Road. It contains a slaughter house for sheep and 35 stalls for selling mutton. On the other side, there are 13 stalls for dried fish and also for fresh fish. Some fish vendors sit on the open paved space outside the stalls. Sea fish comes daily in the evening from Deogaḍ and Mālvan. Local river fish is also available in plenty. In addition to this market, there is a slaughter house and stalls for sale of beef in the Sadar Bazār.

The milk-stand or *Kaṭṭā* is at *Gaṅgāves*. It is a practice in Kolhāpūr to buy milk by getting the buffalo milked in one's

presence. About 300 buffaloes are brought every morning and evening to the Gaṅgāves milk-stand. The stand area is paved and provided with rings for tethering the buffaloes.

The grain market is situated in Laxmipurī. Wholesale and retail business is carried on here. It consists of a number of tin sheds, belonging to the municipality. In addition, there are shops in private buildings along this road. All these together constitute the grain market. The municipality proposes to pull down the tin sheds and construct an enclosed grain market.

There is a separate grass market and a separate market for bamboos. The former is situated near Uttareśvar while the latter is situated beyond the Pāṇyacā Khajinā (old water reservoir) near the aqueduct. The bamboo market is held on Sundays while the grass market is held daily. Near the bamboo market is a cattle market where cattle are bought and sold in large numbers every Sunday. The cattle market is a well-planned area of about two acres with plenty of trees for share and tin shed for buyers and sellers. A water trough for cattle is also provided. Every Sunday 400 to 500 cattle are brought for sale of which 200 to 250 are sold.

In addition to the daily markets, a weekly bazar is held on every Sunday, where all articles of daily need are available. Villagers of nearby villages come to this bazar for their weekly purchases. The local people buy their requirements of onions, chillies, etc., during the season when these commodities come to the market in large quantities and prices are low. The weekly bazar is held on the Raosāheb Māḷi Road, on Master Vināyak Road and on Comrade Dāṅge Road.

Gur Market Yard.

Kolhāpūr district has been producing sugarcane and jaggery (*gūḷ*) since long. In 1854, Graham in his report mentions that Kolhāpūr State produced annually 1,296 Khanḍis of 'Gur' valued at Rs. 1,20,539. This *gūḷ* used to be sent to Rājāpur for sale as there was no market at Kolhāpūr. Afterwards, when a market was established at Sāṅgli, Kolhāpūr *gūḷ* was sent there. In 1895, Śāhū Chatrapati ordered the establishment of a market near the station. Traders were given free plots and other concessions and were persuaded to start a market in Śāhūpurī. The market seems to have started in 1902 and made rapid progress thereafter. During 1955-56 *gūḷ* worth Rs. 3·60 crores was sold in it. It has also given a great flip to the cultivation of sugarcane in the district. In 1954-55, the acreage under sugarcane in the district was 44,419 acres. In addition to jaggery, groundnut is also sold in the market. During 1955-56 groundnut worth about Rs. 44·5 lacs was sold. Jaggery is sold by brokers on behalf of agriculturists and is bought by traders who export it to Bombay, Gujarat,

[1] Graham's Report P. 231. Quoted in Centenary issue of Kolhapur Municipality P 209.

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Karnāṭak and other parts of India. It is also exported to Africa, Malāyā and other countries. The following are the number of brokers and traders :—

				No. of licences.
(1) General Commission Agents :—				
Class I	...	...	...	110
Class II	...	...	...	57
(2) Traders :—A Class				
Category No. I	...	...	...	5
Category No. II	...	...	...	16
(3) Combined licence holders		...	...	97
		Total	...	285

The market is situated in the Vyāpārpeṭh of Sāhūpurī and also on the Śāhū Road, and the cross lanes of Śāhūpurī. The godown facilities are, however, woefully inadequate and during the season, a lot of jaggery is stored on the road in the open until it is exported by truck or rail. There is now a proposal to shift the market yard outside the city proper and a site measuring about 120 acres has already been acquired for the purpose on the Poona-Bangalore Road and the work of developing it is going on (1957). The shifting of the market yard outside the city will also reduce the traffic congestion in the city where at present the roads are full of bullock-carts bringing jaggery from the villages.

In order to control this market and prevent malpractices, an Agricultural Produce Market Committee was appointed by the Kolhāpūr Government in 1945 and the Agricultural Produce Markets Act was applied. The Committee controls the activities of brokers, traders, weighmen and shop assistants by licensing them; it fixes the rates of brokerage and weighing and regulates sales by enforcing sale by public auction. The Committee consists of 15 persons of whom seven represent agriculturists, three represent traders, and brokers, one represents co-operative societies, one represents the municipality and three are nominated by Government, one of whom is the Marketing Inspector and other is the Mamlatdār of the Tālukā. The last two are ex-officio members. Every year the committee elects two of its members to work as Chairman and Vice-Chairman. The Committee is elected every three years.

Fire Service.

The Municipal Fire Brigade is controlled by the Fire Brigade Superintendent. There are two fire stations, one in the municipal office building and the other in the Subhāśa Store of the municipality on the Subhāśa Road. There are two new fire engines bought recently and one old fire engine. They are of the storage

type and not tenders as there are no hydrants. However, the work of fixing hydrants in some localities has been started. Under the Fire Brigade Superintendent, there is a total staff of six motor drivers and 19 firemen.

There have not been many big fires in recent years in the Municipal limits. The following major fires have occurred in recent years :—

Place.	Year.		Estimated loss.
			Rs.
(1) Jamsandekar Dongle Guḷ Vakhār, Śāhūpurī.	1950	...	1,50,000
(2) Gādī Kārkhānā, flour mill and shops opposite Ubhā Maruti in Śivājī Peth.	1954	..	75,000

The fire brigade sometimes goes out of city limits on request. The following major fires were handled by the fire brigade recently outside municipal limits :—

Place.	Year.	Estimated loss.
		Rs.
(1) Gandhinagar Camp barracks ...	1952	40,000
(2) Kurundwāḍ Harijan Vasāhat (colony).	1956	15,000

Disposal of dead bodies.

There are eight places in the city for the disposal of dead bodies. Of these two are cremation grounds for Hindus, of which one is owned and managed by the municipality. The remaining are burial grounds, one for Mohamedans, three for Christians and two for Hindus and other communities. Of these, two are private and are managed by trustees belonging to the different communities concerned.

Kolhapur as a military centre.

Kolhāpūr has been a military centre since old days. The Chatrapati had his own army before the British came. The British maintained their infantry and it was quartered at Infantry Lines near Line Bazar, but when the British units withdrew and the Mahārājā was allowed to have his own army, the Rājārām Rifles were formed. They were quartered in barracks specially built on a hillock near the Temblāī Hill. This continued to be the head quarters of the Rājārām Rifles until the merger of the Kolhāpūr State when this infantry was disbanded. Now a Territorial Army Artillery unit is stationed at Kolhapur and it uses the barracks built for the Rājārām Rifles.

Objects of Interest.

Ambabai Temple.

Of all the objects of interest in Kolhāpūr the Ambābāī or Mahālaxmi temple is the most important. It was the centre of the old town and the city derives its appellation of 'Dakṣiṇ Kāśī' mainly from this temple. The construction of the temple is said to have been started in the 9th Century A. D in the Rāṣṭrakūṭa Period.[1]. Some people believe that the oldest part of the present shrine may have been the work of the early

[1] H. D. Sankalia and M. G. Dixit; Excavations at Brahmapuri (Kolhapur) 1945.

Chalukyas (550 A.D. to 660 A.D.) which the Śilāhāra rulers of Kolhāpūr (9th Century A.D. and onwards) added to and embellished considerably.

The main portion of the building is of two storeys and is built of black stone brought from local quarries. The spire and domes of this temple are said to have been added by a Śaṅkarācārya of Saṅkēśvar ; the Jains declare that the temple was a Jain temple dedicated to Padmāvati and that the spire and domes are Brahmanic additions. The architecture of the building seems to support that claim. The spire and domes do not harmonise with the carved work below, which strongly resembles the style of the twelfth century in the Jain temples in the Mysore State. The image of the god Gaṇapati which ought to be carved on the lintel of every Brahmanic temple is absent and the wall and domes are full of seated cross-legged figures, many of them naked. These details, it is argued, prove that this was originally a Jain temple. According to Major Graham, during some Musalman persecutions in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the image of Ambābāī was hid in a private dwelling and in about 1722 A.D. was installed in the present temple by Sambhāji Mahārāj (1712-1760) who for this purpose sent Sidhoji Hindurāo Ghorpaḍē from Panhāḷā to Kolhāpūr[1] The temple is in the form of a cross and is built with the mortarless close-fitting large blocks of stone known in the Deccan as the Hemāḍpanti style. It faces west on which side is the main entrance with the *nagārkhānā* or drum chamber on the top. Besides the main entrance to the west, three small gates open out on the north, east and south. The northern gate (Ghāṭi Darvājā) has a large bell, which is rung five times a day, at four in the morning, at noon, at one in the afternoon, at eight in the evening and nine at night. The body of the temple is built of local black trap without the help of any timber Except a few doors it has no openings for air. Under the big dome on the east is installed the image of Ambābāi ; and on the north and south sides two smaller domes enclose images of Mahākāli and Mahāsarasvati. The image is about four feet high and it stands on a stoned platform about three feet high. The main building as it stands at present, consists of an entrance *maṇḍap* (*praveś maṇḍap*) now styled as *Garuḍ maṇḍap*, in which during the *Navrātra* celebrations in *Āśvin* (September-October) a silver image of the goddess is installed for worship on the raised stone platform therein. As one enters the old main building one sees the *Mukha* (face) *maṇḍap* on either side of which there are niches containing beautiful images, the chief of them being the

[1] An extent *sanad* or deed by Sambhaji assigning grants for the expense of the temple, states that though under the Bijapur Government (1489-1686) there existed many votaries well able to replace the image, Sambhaji Raja has alone the merit of re-establishing it in its ancient temple. Bombay Govt. Se. New Series VIII, 317.

duplicates of the so-called Bharata and Śatrughna images, though in reality in spite of all their charms they are only Jain Dwārpālas (gate-keepers). This *maṇḍap* leads on to the *Maṇi* (Bell) *maṇḍap*, at the end walls of which are two very beautiful Dwārpāls (gate-keepers) called Jay and Vijaya cast in heroic mould and standing over 10 feet in height. This Bell *maṇḍap* leads into the *Mūḷa-sthan* or the Sanctum Sanctorum wherein is the image of Mahālaxmi or Ambābāī. Inside the big dome round the image of Ambābāī is a closed dark passage with no opening of any sort and with lights burning day and night to enable the worshippers to go round the image. There is an upper storey to the main temple and here there is a *liṅga* exactly above the image of Ambābāī. On the outside of the main temple are beautiful carvings. At regular intervals there are niches and in each niche there is a beautifully carved figure in polished black stone. The figures are of musicians and danseuses (dancing *apsaras*) known as *Yoginis*. The cost of the building must have been immense. The upper works added by *Śaṅkarācārya* are said to have cost about Rs. 1 lakh. The big hall or *Garuḍ* (*Sabhā*) *maṇḍap* in front was added during the administration of Dāji Paṇḍit between 1838 and 1843. The main temple is surrounded by a number of other shrines including shrines of Dattātraya, Viṭhobā, Kāśī-Viśvēśvar, Rām and Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa. The open space round the temple is paved with stone-slabs. On either side of the *Sabhā Maṇḍap* there was a *Kuṇḍ* or a small tank with a fountain, where the devotees could perform ablutions. The *Kuṇḍ* on the southern side has since been filled in. The temple has four inscriptions carved in Devnāgari characters. One on the outer wall of the temple of Harihareśvar behind Datta Mandir, dated *Śaka* 1140 (A.D. 1218) a second on a pillar on the left hand after entering the courtyard dated *Śaka* 1158 (A.D. 1236), a third on a pillar of the small temple of the *Navgrah* to the left of the main building and a fourth in the temple of Śeṣaśāyī behind the main temple on the left hand when entering from the eastern gate. The temple of Ambābāi is visited by large number of pilgrims many of whom come from long distances. Besides contributions from pilgrims which yearly amount to about Rs. 5,000, the temple receives a yearly cash allowance of Rs. 6,000 and has three *inām* villages in Karvīr Tālukā. It is served by twenty *pujāris* or ministrants. Every Friday night the image of Ambābāi is paraded in a litter round the temple and a salute is fired. Ambābāi has three great days in the year. On the full-moon in *Caitra* or March-April a brass image of the goddess is carried in procession through the town in a triumphal car. On the bright 5th of *Āśvin* or September-October the image is carried in a litter in procession to the small temple of Temblāi about three miles east to the city where the unmarried daughter of the headman of Bāvaḍā makes the deity the customary offering the *Kohāḷā* or pumpkin. On the full-moon-day in *Āśvin* or September-October the dome and roof are covered with lamps, and *mahāprasād* is offered to the deity. Once in *Kārtik* and once in *Māgh*, every year

there is a peculiar phenomenon. The sun rays pass through the Mahādvār, pass through the *maṇḍaps* and entering the inner temple fall on the image of Mahālaxmi. The rays first fall on the feet and gradually move upwards. The phenomenon lasts for about five minutes. Special prayers are offered on the occasion and many devotees flock to the temple to see the phenomenon. The exact time is determined by the *pujāris* with the help of the almanack. The phenomenon arises from the peculiar construction of the temple which enables the sun rays to fall on the deity only on two days in a year.

Of the temples within the Ambābāī temple area two are of particular interest from the point of view of art and antiquity. One is the temple of Śeṣaśāyī and the other of Navagraha. The Śeṣaśayī temple is to the south of the eastern gate. The shrine contains a sculpture of Viṣṇu reclining on his primeval serpent couch. There is also a *liṅga* in the shrine. In front of the shrine there is a beautiful *maṇḍap*, the inner dome of whose ceiling is carved in a most exquisite fashion rivalling in its delicacy the carving inside the ceiling of *Vimala Sabhā* at Mount Abu. Below the carved ceiling are standing figures of naked Jain *Tīrthaṅkars* with inscriptions carved along in an old form of Kannaḍa language (Hale Kanada). This *maṅḍap* appears to have been the work of a pious Jain king.

The other temple of interest is the temple of Navagraha. This temple has a beautiful *maṇḍap* in front called the *Aṣṭadikpāl* or *Navagrah Maṇḍap* on account of the nine panels that adorn the inner face of its ceiling. The *maṇḍap* is an exquisite work of ancient Indian sculpturesque architecture and contains also a fine freize of swans. At the ends of this *maṇḍap* are exquisite types of Indian womanhood whom religion has sanctified as *Apsarās*. The inner shrine on the right contains a figure of Durgā slaying the Buffalo Demon (*Mahiṣāsura Mardini*) and also another fine group depicting the solar deity being borne aloft on his seven horsed, single wheeled chariot (*Ratha*). The shrine on the left contains figures of the nine *grahas* installed in 1941.

In addition to these two subsidiary shrines the temple also contains other smaller places of worship. Of these, the most important are the small temples of Dattātraya, Hari-Harēśvar, Mukteśvari, Viṭhobā, Kāśiviśvēśvar, Rāma and Rādhākṛṣṇa.

There were on the northern side of the temple two *tīrthas* or pools of holy water known as the Kāśi and the Mankarṇikā whose sides were lined with images and hero stones. These pools have now been filled up and the images and stones have been removed to the Museum or to other places.

The Ambābāī temple and its property were formerly managed by the Devasthān Maṇḍal of the District Local Board. In 1950, the management was handed over to one person who claimed

to be the *vahivātdār* of the deity. Subsequently in 1955, the management was taken over by Government and since then it is managed by the collector of the district with the help of a small committee.

Binkhambi Ganapati.

Binkhāmbi Gaṇapati Temple : This temple is at the corner of Mahādvār Road. The temple consists of two parts, the inner temple and the *maṇḍap* in front. Both these have no pillars to support the ceiling and hence the temple is called Binkhāmbī (or without pillars). The *maṇḍap* is a square room about 25′ × 25′. The usual tower with *Kaḷas* is on the inner temple. The image of Gaṇapati is of stone with *Shendur* applied to it. The temple was formerly known as Josirāo's Gaṇapati, possibly because the Jośirāo family was managing the temple.

Bramheshwar Temple.

Bramheśvar temple : This temple is near Varuṇtīrth. It is like the Ambābāī temple in construction but the spire or tower is missing. The temple is also half buried under the ground and presents a desolate appearance. It has a small original *maṇḍap* in front and a big recent *maṇḍap* of corrugated sheets. Inside the shrine there is a *liṅga* below the level of the ground and in the *maṇḍap* there is a *Nandī*.

Khol Khandoba.

Khol Khaṇḍobā : The Khol Khaṇḍobā is a temple near the Buruḍ Galli. From the outside one sees a big dome like that of a mosque. One has to go down about 20 to 25 feet. into the temple to reach the deity. The deity in the temple is the *Liṅga*. The temple is said to be ancient and the habitation round about is said to be even older than the habitation round the Mahālaxmi temple. The temple is not, however, in its original shape. It appears to have been partially demolished by an earthquake and have been rebuilt at a later date. The structure is rough and is without any embelishments.

Phirangai Mandir.

Phirangāi Mandir : The temple of Phirangāi or Pratyangiras a favourite goddess of the lower classes, is near Varuṇtīrth. This goddess receives offerings of flour, salt, turmeric, and oil and she is supposed to have the power of curing children suffering from itch. Formerly buffaloes were offered but now goats have taken the place of buffaloes.

The temple is simple. It is of slightly rough stones without any carvings or decorations. It appears to be a very old temple and perhaps it existed even before the Mahālaxmi temple was built because this habitations is said to have been prior to the habitation round the Mahālaxmi temple. It is now falling into a state of disrepair.

Radhakrishna Mandir.

Radhākṛṣṇa Mandir : This is an old temple near the Padmaḷā or old race course. The temple is small and simple in style with a spire in the usual way. The idols are of white marble. There is an image of Kṛṣṇa playing on the flute and an image of Rādhā standing beside him. There is a small cow in between and a small figure on the left hand possibly of another cowherd.

These figures face north on the left hand side and facing west is the figure of another woman, possibly a *Gopi*.

The period of the temple is not known. But in 1857, some of the mutineers are said to have taken refuge here. This shows that the temple is an old one.

There is a *maṇḍap* in front of the temple of fairly recent construction. Round the temple are hutments which were formerly used as stables for race horses. Now some people live in these buildings.

Shashashayee temple.

Śeṣaśāyī temple : This temple is in the Subhāṣ Cauk. The temple itself is of recent construction but the image of Viṣṇū sitting on the coils of Śeṣa is an ancient one. It was found in the moat round the city wall south of Ravivār Vesa, and has been removed from there and installed at the present place during the reign of Śāhu Mahārāj. The image is carved in black stone and shows Viṣṇū reclining on the coils of the serpent who has spread its many headed hood on him and a 'Dās' and a 'Dāsi' are pressing Viṣṇū's feet. The work is exquisitely executed and is very interesting. The whole figure is about 10 to 12 feet in length.

Tembalai temple.

Tembalāi temple : On the east of Kolhāpūr city about three miles from the old city there is a small hill and on this hill is built the temple of Temblāi or Tryambuli. According to the Karvīr or Kolhāpūr Purāṇ, Temblāi the younger sister of Mahālaxmi in consequence of a quarrel with Mahālaxmi left Kolhāpūr 1900 years ago and retired to a hill about three miles to the east of the city and remained there with her back turned towards her elder sister. The reason for the quarrel is given as follows :—After Mahālaxmi had killed the Daitya Kolla in the war between the *devas* and the *daityas*, his son Kāmākṣā decided to take revenge. He had acquired some magic by which he could convert human beings and things into sheep. Using this magic he converted Mahālaxmi and other gods into sheep. Tryambuli was not there at the time and so escaped. When she came to know of it she came and killed Kāmākṣa by a ruse and using his magic wand converted the sheep back into their natural form. The gods were very glad and decided to celebrate the occasion. Invitations were sent out to all but Tryambuli was forgotten by mistake. She got annoyed and went and sat on the Tryambuli Hill. When her absence at the celebrations was noticed Mahālaxmi sent some *devas* to fetch her. But she would not come. Finally Mahālaxmi herself went there with a *Kohāḷā'* or pumpkin to remind her of an incident in the fight with Kolla, the Daitya. But Tryambuli was not moved. This incident occurred on the 5th *Āśvin*, even to-day. Ambābāī is said to pay her sister one visit in honour of the Goddess. An image of Ambābāī is placed in a litter and carried in procession to the hill and a *Kohāḷā* or pumpkin is afterwards cut to pieces by an unmarried girl in memory of the destruction by the deity of a giant named

Kolhāpūr. The fair is attended by 15,000 to 20,000 people and sweetmeats and other eatables as well as toys are offered for sale. Every third year and also during bad attacks of cholera and other epidemics a buffalo is offered to the goddess. The temple has a small allowance from Government and one *pujāri* or ministrant is in attendance. In the old days every year in *Āṣāḍh* or June-July or in *Māgh* or January-February it was customary in Kolhāpūr to offer a he-buffalo to the goddess Margāi near Temblāi. This practice was stopped a long time ago. Now only *naivedya* of mutton is offered. During the month of *Aṣaḍh*, on every Tuesday and Friday, water from Pañcagaṅgā river is taken ceremoniously in brass vessels and *Kāvaḍīs* are poured on the threshold of Temblāi temple. Offerings of eatables and mutton are also made. Some of the local *tālīms* or gymnasiums organise some of these parties.

The temple in the old Hemāḍpanti style is without any ornate carvings. There is a *maṇḍap* in front of the main temple.

On the same hill there are two more temples. One is the temple of Margāi and the other is a temple of Śivājī Mahārāj. The latter is a recent construction. The former is an old structure with a recent addition of a *maṇḍap* of corrugated iron sheets.

The Tryambuli hill is a picturesque spot apart from its religious importance. It is a windswept hill with very few trees One gets a panoramic of the sprawling city from the top. Nearby on similar hill is the Vikramsingh reservoir where there is a garden maintained by the Water Works Department. This is a beautiful spot for an evening stroll. There is a small reservoir from where water is supplied to a part of the city. On the other side of the Tryambuli hill is the hill on which the barracks of the former Rajaram Rifles are seen. Between this hill and the Tryambuli hill passes the road to Hupari.

Viṭhoba Mandir.

Viṭhobā Mandir : The temple of Viṭhobā, which was probably built about the same time as Ambābāī temple, lies south-east near the Subhāṣ Cauk. A large space encloses five temples with a rest-house large enough for several hundred travellers. The chief temple of Viṭhobā to the right is built of stone and is similar in style to the great temple of Ambābāī. In front of this temple. there is a double-storeyed wooden *maṇḍap* which is of fairly recent construction. Another old temple to the left dedicated to Viśvēśvar is similar in style to Viṭhobā's temple. The entrance is grand and has spacious rooms on the top. On the bright elevenths of *Āṣaḍh* or June-July and *Kārtik* or October-November fairs are held in honour of the god Viṭhobā when flowers and leaves of the *bel* or Aegle marmelos and the *tulśī* or basil plant are offered. The rooms on the entrance as well as the two buildings on either side of the entrance are now used by a school. Except the temple of Viṭhobā the other temples appear to be slightly neglected and signs of disrepair are visible in some of them.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

Jain Mandir.

Jain Mandir.—In Laxmipuri, near the Padmā Talkies there is a temple of Munisuvrat, the 20th Tīrthankar of the Jains. Although the *mandir* was built in 1947, it is a fine example of an attempt to build in the old Indian style of architecture. The *mandir* is modelled on the lines of the old Jain *mandirs* and reminds one of the Jain *mandirs* at Abu. There are beautiful carvings both inside and outside the temple. The image of Munisuvrat is installed in the inner temple. There are also images of other Tīrthankars in marble, in the temple. Next to the inner temple there is a *maṇḍap*. The *mandir* was built at a cost of Rs. 1,25,000.

Jain Swami Math.

Jain Swāmi Maṭh.—This *maṭh* is in Śukravār Peṭh a short distance from the Śukravār Dharmaśālā. The *maṭh* is very old. The main gate or *Nagārkhānā* is very beautiful and is similar to the *nagārkhānā* of the old Palace. It is, however, surmounted by a number of four-pillared towers. The main arched gateway is very beautiful. This *nagārkhānā* or gate was built 80 years ago by Maṭhādhipati Laxmisen Mahārāj at a cost of Rs. 61,000. It is built of black stone and is 65 ft. in height.

At present there is only an open space beyond the gate, except for a small structure at right angles to the main gate and joined to it. The old *maṭh* building appears to have been destroyed and the upper storeys of the main gate and the other structure are at present being used as *maṭh*.

Shankaracharya Math.

Śankarācārya Maṭh.—This *maṭh* is in Śukravār Peṭh on the way to the Pañcagangā Ghat. It is an old two storeyed structure without any embellishments or architectural points. It is, however, very old. The building is occupied by Śankarācārya of Sankēśvar. Although formerly it was a part of the Sankēśvar *Maṭh*, the link was broken about 50 years ago and now the Kolhāpūr *maṭh* is known as Karvīr *Pīṭha*.

Babujamal Darga.

Babujamāl Darga.—The Babujamāl Dargā is behind Saraswati Cinema theatre within a short distance of the Ambābāī temple. This *dargā* appears to have been built when the Muslims first conquered Kolhāpūr.

There is a big gate leading into the *dragā* grounds. The top of the gate has, however, been removed. This gate was built in 1909 according to a tablet fixed there. The *dargā* has a fairly extensive area with a garden and subsidiary building. The main *dargā* stands in the middle of the ground. It is a typical Muslim structure with a big dome and four small domes at the four corners. The *dargā* seems to have been built with stones of Hindu temples because the image of Gaṇapati appears on the lintel of the door. It is white washed.

This Darga is the most important Muslim shrine in the city. Many Hindus also go there for worship.

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Municipal Office Building.

Municipal Office Building.—The Municipal Office building stands on the Bhāusiṅgjī road near the Śivājī Chowk. It is a rectangular two-storeyed stone building with a small third storey in the middle of each side. There are shops on the ground-floor on the outside. On the first floor, there is a verandah with arches on the outside and rooms opening out on the inside. There is a big quadrangle in the building which is approached from a gate on the northern side. There are arched gates on the other three sides but two of them are generally closed and the one on the eastern side is used for a fire-fighter station. On the first floor there are two big halls, the old and the new, which are meant for meetings of the General Body. The new hall constructed in 1953 has special wall panels which absorb sound and prevent reverberations. There is also a gallery and new type of fluorescent lighting.

The building has been built in two sections. The eastern and southern wings and a portion of the northern wing were built in 1929 at a cost of Rs. 1,60,000. The western wing and a portion of the northern wing were built in 1955 at a cost of Rs. 2,74,000. The new hall is situated in the western wing.

New Palace.

New Place.—The New Palace is on the Bhāusiṅgjī Road (Bavāḍa road) near the Residency. It took seven years to complete, from 1877 to 1884, and cost about seven lakhs of rupees. The building faces south and has an octagonal tower in the centre, commonly known as the clock tower, about 25 ft. broad (outside dimension) and 135 ft. high. The end rooms of the Palace are octagonal in shape both in front and at back, and it has a grand Darbār hall and billiard room on one side and two reception rooms on the other At the back is an open cauk (square) with a fountain at the centre and an enclosed verandah arcade and rooms on all sides of the chowk. The main building is two-storeyed with a terraced roof and numerous turrets and domes. The Palace is designed with an exquisite grace of outline which characterises the mixed Hindu style of architecture and is ornamented with a profusion of elaborate detail which presents itself to the utmost advantage. The Darbār Hall is particularly grand. It has very beautiful stained windows depicting various episodes in the life of Śivājī the Great, which is the work of an Italian artist.

The Palace has beautiful grounds. There is also a small zoo. There is a small lake specially created for this zoo. There was also a small in-door swimming pool near the Palace. The building, however, is not in proper repair now and the pool is not in use.

Old Palace.

Old Palace.—The Old Palace stands near the Mahālaxmī temple to the south-east of the temple. It was built more than 200 years ago. Some portions of this Palace were set on fire and destroyed in the insurrection of 1813 by Sadāllā Khān and they had to be rebuilt from time to time. The front portion is very recent. The Palace is a two-storeyed building

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Old Palace.

having a terrace all over except the central portion where a hall has been erected. The Palace contains six chowks (quadrangles). The most important of these is the Bhavānī cauk in which the image of the family deity, Bhavāni, is set up. In this cauk darbārs and all religious functions connected with the chatrapati's household were formerly held. This cauk is big and has a polished floor, wide verandahs on the four sides and a gallery on the first floor overlooking the chowk. The temple of Bhavānī is on the western side facing the east. The temple is spacious. Outside in the southern verandah is kept the 'Gadī' or throne which was used for the darbārs. There is also a life-size wooden statue of Śāhu Chatrapati. Next to Bhavānī cauk on the southern side there is another cauk where there is a small tank with goldfish in it. In the middle of the tank, there is a small temple of Mahādeva. The first floor has residential rooms. The western portion of the Palace is owned by Government and many offices are located therein. There is a police station in the portion which formerly belonged to treasury. On the first floor of this portion are situated the Judicial Magistrates' courts. In the next chowk, there are the Prant Offices, the Sub-Registrar's Office, Labour Office, etc. This cauk is big and has a fountain in the middle. In the south-western portion there is a women's institution patronised by the Dowager Mahārāṇi. In front of this portion there is a small open space with small temples. The North-eastern portion is in a dilapidated condition. There used to be also a garden here but now it is a neglected back-yard. Beyond it there is a medium-sized tank. This and the buildings round about are used by the Motibaug *talīm*.

The Palace is built in simple style and there are no special decorations or carvings. It is built mainly in the Hindu style with very few arches, domes or minarets.

In front of the Bhavānī cauk in the eastern side of the Palace a big *maṇḍap* with corrugated sheets has been built. It is in a state of disrepair now.

The Palace is surrounded by other structures with gates in them in such way that there is a courtyard for the Palace. On the northern side there is a two-storeyed stone building with arches and domes with the nagārkhānā or the main gate in the middle and the building of the Rājārām College further on. On the eastern side, facing the Bhavānī temple is another structure with a beautiful gate in the middle. On the south there is the "Wada" of a courtier. The courtyard formed with these buildings is not paved and is now a public thoroughfare with roads passing through it. The nagārkhānā building is of particular interest. It is perhaps the tallest building in the city and form its top one gets a panoramic view of the city. It is a massive five-storeyed building built mainly in black-stone and is a fine example of Indian architecture. There are no domes but there are a few arches which point to Islamic influence. On the third-storey, there is a chamber with square

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pillars. The pillars as well as walls are of highly polished black-stone. It is called Aine Mahāl or the hall of mirrors because the surface of the walls and of the pillars is so highly polished that it reflects images. The main gate of the *nagārkhānā* has big arches. On either side of the gate, there is a room where elephants were formerly kept. The *nagārkhānā* was built by Buvāsāhēb Mahārāj, the ruler of Kolhāpūr between 1828 and 1838. Its cost is unknown but it has been estimated at Rs. 5,00,000. The gate on the eastern side has beautiful pillars.

Rajaram College.

Rajārām College.—The Rajārām College (Arts Section) building is near the *nagārkhānā* of the Old Palace. This building is in the Rājasthān style of construction with small curved domes supported by slender pillars and galleries with curved roofs. The building is a two-storeyed structure in black-stone with two beautiful polygon towers in the Indo-Saracenic style, with slender pillars supporting a dome with an inverted lotus-leaf. There is a partial third storey which seems to have been built at a later period and does not completely harmonise with the main building.

The building was originally built for the Rājārām High School. Subsequently when the Rājārām College was started in 1880 the High School was shifted and the College was housed in this building. There is a beautiful hall in the building which is used for various functions. There is an open air theatre recently built behind the college building.

Shalini Palace.

Śālinī Palace.—The Śālinī Palace stands on the northern bank of the Raṅkālā lake. It is a modern construction in Indo-Saracenic style of architecture. It is a rectangular double-storeyed structure with four square towers surmounted by domes at the corners. On the front side above the main entrance another square tower rises above the corner towers and it is surmounted by a polygon tower with slender pillars and a dome at the top with an inverted lotus leaf. The Palace faces the Raṅkāḷā tank and has beautiful grounds. There is a small *ghāṭ* on the lake where one can sit and enjoy solitude or from where one can go boating. The Palace is richly decorated inside and is lavishly furnished.

This Palace was built between 1931 and 1934 at a cost of Rs. 8,00,000. At present (1957) it is not in regular use.

Town Hall.

Town Hall.—This beautiful building is situated near the Civil Hospital on the Bhāusingji Road It stands in the extensive and beautiful Town Hall garden. The building is in Gothic style with two spires and a steep roof. It consists of a large central hall and gallery with two rooms on either side joined to the main hall by a spacious verandah in the front. There is a fine porch with a terrace over it, joined to the hall and gallery. The hall is spacious enough to seat 500 persons.

There is a big arched wooden door leading into the hall. Creepers have been let on the porch and on the walls. There is a beautiful, large, oval fountain in front of the building with a pool of water which contains goldfish. The building is surrounded by a splendid garden (for description of the garden see Gardens). The Town Hall building was constructed between 1872 and 1876 at a cost of Rs. 80,000.

The building at present houses a museum. The hall contains glass cases in which are displayed various articles found in the excavations at Brahmapuri such as earthern vessels, beads and so on. Some cases display coins of different periods. There are *tamrapaṭs* also. There are many figures carved in stone found in the different parts of the city and at Bid, a village in Karvīr tālukā where there was a kingdom in pre-Muslim days. In the southern wing there is an armoury where old weapons are displayed. In the northern wing there is an Art gallery where paintings of noted local artists are displayed. There is also a small collection of busts and statues.

Statues.

Statues.—There are some beautiful statues in Kolhāpūr city. Of particular interest are the following:—(i) Statue of Śivājī Mahārāj in Śivājī Cauk, (ii) Statue of Sāhū Chatrapati, (iii) Statue of Āīsāheb Mahārāj and (iv) Statue of Mahātmā Gāndhi in Varuṇtīrth.

The statue of Śivājī Mahārāj in Śivājī Cauk faces north It is a standing figure of Śivājī with a sword drawn. The statue is in bronze and is mounted on a pedestal of polished black-stone. The pedestal is about 10 ft. in height and the statue is about 6 ft. in height. The statue is enclosed by a polygon-shaped compound of stone pillars and a green hedge is grown around it. The statue was erected in 1945, on the site formerly occupied by the statue of Sir Leslie Wilson.

The statue of Śāhu Mahārāj is on the Śāhu Road near Dasara Chowk. The statue is a full size standing figure of Śāhu Mahārāj in bronze mounted on a greenish marble pedastal with a small polygon-shaped compound of small stone pillars and an iron chain. The statue itself is about 10 ft. in height and the pedestal is 12 to 15 ft. in height. With this height the statue looks imposing. The statue was unveiled on 12th April 1927.

The statues of Āīsāhēb Mahārāj is on the junction of Śivājī Road, Laṭṭhe Road and Karmavīr Bhāurao Pātil Road. It is a marble statue of Mahārāṇi Laxmibāi, the mother of Rājārām Māhārāj. It is a beautiful sitting figure of the Mahārāṇi with a beautiful marble canopy. There is a marble pedestal. Formerly, there were trees round the statue but they have been recently removed and the place has been converted into an oval-shaped traffic island. The statue was erected in 1929, at the time of establishment of Laxmipuri *vasāhat*.

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The statue of Mahātmā Gāndhi is at Varuntīrth. It stands in the middle of what was formerly the Varuntīrth tank. The statue is an bronze and shows Mahātmā Gāndhi in the familiar pose of walking with a long stick in his hand. The statue itself is 11 ft. in height and it is mounted on a stone pedestal which is 12 to 15 ft. in height. The area round the statue is being developed into a garden. The statue cost Rs. 1,00,000 and was unveiled on 7th June, 1954.

Besides these statues, there are the following statues or busts in the city:—

(1) The equestrian statue of Prince Śivāji near Śāhu Boarding.
(2) Bust of Mahātmā Phulē Bindu Cauk.
(3) Bust of Dr. B. R. Ambēdkar in Bindu Cauk.
(4) Bust of Allādiya Khān near Deval Club.
(5) Bust of Ābālāl in Padmā Rājē Garden.
(6) Bust of Śāhu Mahārāj in Śāhu Uddyān.
(7) Bust of Rājārām Mahārāj in front of the Civil Courts.
(8) Bust of Cimāsāhēb near Power House corner.
(9) Bust of Govindarāo Tēmbē in Rājārām Hall garden.
(10) Bust of Mahātmā Gāndhi at Pāpāchī Tikṭī.
(11) Bust of Śivāji at Varuṇtīrth.

Panchagana Ghat.

Pañcagaṅgā Ghāṭ.—To the north-west of the city, there is an extensive *ghāṭ* on the Pañcagaṅgā river. There are numerous temples here including some in the river itself. On the bank is an enclosure where members of the royal family are cremated. There are many temples here dedicated to the deceased members of the royal family. Saṁbhāji, Śivāji III, Ābā Sāhēb and Bābāsāhēb. Of these, the biggest and best is the temple of Śivāji III. It was built in 1815 and contains some beautiful carvings. It is, however, an ill-assorted combination of large Musalman Hall and a lofty Hindu spire covered with stucco formed into mouldings and with a few ornaments.[1] These tombs are *liṅg* shrines. In some temples *pādukās* are found.

The *ghāṭ* consists of long stone flights of steps reaching down to the river. The *ghāṭ* is used for bathing and washing. One gets a very picturesque view from the *ghāṭ*. To the north one sees the river winding under the lofty arches of the Shivaji Bridge. Overlooking this bridge, the *ghāṭ* and the river is the Bramhapuri Hill, the site of the ancient city.

Kotitirth.

Koṭitīrth.—To the east of the city near the Śāhu Mill (Śāhu Chatrapati Spinning and Weaving Mill) there is a big tank or lake with a temple of Mahādēva. This is called the Koṭitīrth. This is a picturesque spot in Kolhāpūr. On the city side there is an earthen bund. There are some bābul trees on this side. The temple of Mahādēva is slightly inside the lake with a small strip of land joining it to the bund. The temple is small and

[1] Old District Gazetteer.

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simple and has no ornate carvings or decorations. The image of Gaṇapatī is carved on the lintel of the temple. There is a small *maṇḍap* of recent construction before the temple. Inside the temple there is a *Piṇḍī* or *l'ṅg* of Mahādeo. On the southern side there is a sort of mangrove and a building. This building was constructed by one Narāyaṇdas Mahārāj, who came here in 1894 and built this rest-house like building with country tiled roof. Narāyandas Mahārāj took *samādhi*, in 1933. The *samādhi* is in a small chamber below the main room of this building. In front of this building, there is a small *ghāṭ* going upto the edge of the water. The *samādhi* has become a place of worship.

There are different stories about how the place came to be called Koṭitīrth. According to one the *daityas* defeated the *devas*. The *devas* implored Mahālaxmi to help them and she attacked the *devas*. But when she saw their plight she took pity on them and refused to kill them. But the *daityas* did not like this and they told her that those who seek mercy go to hell while those who die on the battle field go to heaven and that she should kill all of them and give the place the name of Koṭitīrth as they were one crore in strength. According to another story Koṭitīrth is the *tirth* or holy tank established by Puśkarēśvar at Karvīr. As king Bhānu took bath here and washed away his one crore sins the *tirth* was called Koṭitīrth.

The water of Koṭitīrth is not used for drinking. It is used for bathing and washing. A few people swim in the tank especially near the temple of Narāyandās Mahārāj.

Rankala.

Raṅkāḷā : Of all the places of interest in Kolhāpūr, Raṅkāḷā is perhaps the most popular. It is a place where people throng in the evening for a stroll. It is sometimes referred to as the mackbay or Marine Drive of Kolhāpūr. Raṅkāḷā is a lake at the south western end of the city. It has a radius of 2¼ miles to 3 miles and depth of 35 ft. The road on the city side is in good condition and is the most frequented. It is really a bund which was built to increase the capacity of the lake. The water of the lake is now used mainly for irrigation and about 350 acres are irrigated. The water is let through a sluice gate in the bund. This gate is operated from a minor type of beautiful structure called the Raṅkāḷā Tower. Near the Tower is the Rājghāt, a flight of broad steps leading to the water. It is now used for bathing and washing. On the northern bank of the lake stands the beautiful Śālini Palace lending additional charm to the lake. On the eastern side and slightly in the lake stands the Sandhyā-maṭh. It is a structure of stone columns with a stone slab forming a big hall. It is an old structure in a crumbling stage. It is almost fully sub-merged in water during the monsoon and almost fully seen in the summer when the water in the lake reaches its lowest level. On the south-eastern side of the lake there is the Padmā Rāje Garden, where one can sit and relax. Formerly there were

Rankala.

a few boats for going round in the lake which were used mainly by the Mahārāja. Fishing rights were also reserved by the Mahārāja. Now there are no boats in the lake. Fishing rights are annually auctioned. Very good *Maraḷ* is found in the lake. The lake is named after the god Rańk Bhairav, who is said to have been a great favourite with Mahālakṣmī and to have a gold temple now hidden under the water of the lake. The beginning of the Rańkāḷā lake is said to have been a quarry from which, according to the Jains, including the temple of Aṁbābāī, stones were supplied to 360 *Bastis* or Jain temples built by a Jain Rājā Gandharāditya. Afterwards in the eighth or ninth century an earthquake is said to have enlarged the quarry and filled it with water. The lake now receives water from two streams in the north and has also a waste weir outlet in the north. In 1883 the Rańkāḷā water supply was much improved. A new cut-stone dam higher and stronger than the old dam was built on the city side. This dam with its parapet wall still stands, although the height of the dam or embankment has slightly increased due to remetalling of the road on the top and the height of the parapet wall has correspondingly decreased. The lake is now owned by Government and is managed by the Public Works Department.

Bindu Chowk.

Bindu Cauk is a square in the heart of the town. In this square there is a semi-circular place for public meetings. This place is paved and fenced and has a specially built dias at one end. It has a picturesque background of the only remaining bastions of the old city wall and on the south is the only remaining gate viz., the Ravivār Ves. On either side of the dais, there are two busts, one of Mahātmā Phule and the other of Dr. B. R. Ambeḍkar. All major public meetings are held at this place.

Sathmari.

Sāṭhmārī or the arena for elephant fights is on Subhāṣ Road in the south-eastern part of the old city. It is a plot of about two acres with small stone castles built at different points where the persons provoking the elephants to fight could take shelter. The whole plot is fenced round with a wall on the top of which there is place for the spectators. Elephant fights were popular during the rule of Śāhū Chatrapati. Now the place is used as a playground and is only a remainder of the old sport.

Wrestling Arena.

Kolhāpūr is known for wrestling. To encourage wrestling a special wrestling arena has been built by the former Kolhāpūr State Government. The arena is between Subhāṣa Cauk and Keśāvarāo Bhosale Nāṭyagṛha (old Palace Theatre). It is a circular open place with a pavilion at one end and circular sloping ground all round. The ring is in the middle. The arena can accommodate 20,000 persons at a time. The arena is now owned by Government and has been leased out to the Kolhāpūr Sports Association which arranges wrestling bouts periodically.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. *Chhatrapati Pramila Raje Hospital.*

The C. P. R. Hospital or the Civil Hospital (formerly known as Albert Edward Hospital) is situated on the Bhāusiṅgjī Road near the old Queen's or Rāṇī Circle. The main building of the hospital is an example of English architecture of Gothic style of the nineteenth century. It was constructed between 1881 and 1884 at a cost of Rs. 3 lakhs. It is a two storeyed structure with a small portion behind the porch at the entrance going up to three or four storeys. This portion has a steep tiled roof ending up with wrought iron railing at the top.

The hospital has accommodation for 200 patients. On the ground floor are the administrative offices and a small general ward. On the first floor are two general wards, the one on the right hand side as one goes up the staircase, is a female and children's ward and the other slightly higher up on the left is the male ward. There is a well-equipped operation theatre on the first floor. Behind the main building there is a newly constructed T. B. Ward and a small ward for infectious diseases. On the southern side there are special rooms in what is called Nursing Home. In the open space in front of the main building on the southern side there is the out-patient department with X-Ray arrangement. This building is comparatively a recent construction.

There is a separate maternity home attached to the Civil Hospital. This is known as Padmā Rāje Maternity Home. It is in the same compound as the main hospital but is at the other end. It is a two-storeyed building.

Karvir Nagar Vachan Mandir.

The Karvir Nagar Vācan Mandir is opposite the Rājārām College (Arts Section). It has a small but attractive building with a small dome and some carved slender pillars, forming a porch. The architecture is somewhat similar to the architecture of the Rajaram College building, though not of that exquisite quality.

The library was founded in 1850 and was then known as the Kolhāpūr Native Library. It was originally housed in a building which was later on taken over by the Government. The present building was constructed between 1879 and 1881. In 1921 the reading hall on the east was built.

There is a reading hall in the original building where newspapers and magazines are available for reading. Books are issued out for reading at home. There is another reading hall in the building constructed later where reference books are generally available. There were 26,000 books in the library in 1957.

KINI.

Kini (Hatkaṇaṅgalē T.; 16° 50′ N; 74° 15′ E; p. 3,192), lies thirteen miles north of Kolhāpūr on the Puṇē-Beḷagāṅv Road It has two old temples, one of Mahādev twenty-one by fourteen feet and the other of Mārutī forty feet by twenty-five.

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KUMBHOJ.

Kumbhoj (Hātkaṇaṅgalē T.; p. 5,968) a village in the Hātkaṇaṅgalē tālukā lies on the Varṇā valley, eighteen miles north-east of Kolhāpūr. It is five miles to the north of Hātkaṇaṅgale railway station. The village is named after Kumbheśvar, a form of Śiv, who is the guardian of the village. Kumbhoj is known for its tobacco, which is largely grown in the village. It has a Jain temple of Bābabulli, 40½′ × 34½′ × 37½′ high including the spire; temple of the Goddess Bāṇśaṅkari, 200 feet square, with the spire forty-nine feet high; and a domed Musalman tomb dedicated to Hazrat Khāṭāl Pīr and built partly of stone and partly of burnt brick and mortar.

KURUNDWAD.

Kurundavad (Śirol T.; p. 9,744), lies near the junction of the Kṛṣṇā and the Pañcagaṅgā, about 24 miles east of Kolhāpūr. It was the capital of the former Kurundavāḍ (Senior) State. It is nine miles to the south of Jaisiṅgapūr railway station (Kolhāpūr-Miraj line).

Area and Population.

Of the total population of 9,744 according to the census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 4,846 and the non-agricultural classes 4,898. Of the latter 1,197 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 1,341 persons from commerce; 182 persons from transport, and 2,178 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1883 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers nearly two square miles. The municipal council is composed of 17 members. Two of the seats are reserved for women, and one for the Scheduled Castes in ward No. 3.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1954-55, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 22,739, composed of octroi, Rs. 2,462; house tax, Rs. 2,648; wheel tax, Rs. 1,128; special sanitary cess, Rs. 2,428; theatre tax, Rs. 1,005; tax on bidi shops, Rs. 330; rents of municipal lands and houses Rs. 4,621; conservancy receipts; Rs. 1.105; market fees, Rs. 2,171; licence fees, Rs. 462; interest Rs. 172; grants, Rs. 1,527; other items, Rs. 2,680. The total expenditure in the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 27,855. General administration and collection of taxes amounted to Rs. 7,103; refund, Rs. 65; lighting, Rs. 2,032; water supply and drainage, Rs. 116; conservancy (general), Rs. 6,881; conservancy (special), Rs. 2,221; other sanitary requirements, Rs. 432; epidemics and vaccination, Rs. 68; public works (roads and buildings), Rs. 3,866; contributions, Rs. 26; and other items, Rs. 5.046. There is a government dispensary in the town.

Municipal Services.

There is no special drainage works for the town. The sullage water is taken away by means of *kutcha* and *pucca* gutters. Water is supplied to the town from pipes from the

CHAPTER 20. Places. *Municipal Services.*

river Kṛṣṇā. Compulsory primary education is administered in the town by the District School Board, Kolhāpūr, the municipality making its statutory contribution. There is a high school. There is a library in the town run by a private institution recognised by Government, to which the municipality gives a small annual grant. There is no fire service in the town. There are eight miles of road in the town, three miles of which are metalled and the rest unmetalled. There are no burial or cremation grounds maintained by the Municipality. There are three burial places for the Mahommedan community; two burial places for Lingāyats; and one cremation ground for Hindus all situated outside the municipal area. The objects of interest in the town are the palace of the chief of the ex-Kurundavāḍ State and a temple of Viṣṇū.

MALKAPUR.

Malkapur (Śāhūwāḍī T.; 16° 55′ N, 73° 55′ E; p. 3,299) lies twenty-eight miles north-west of Kolhāpūr on the left bank of the Śālī river and close to the Kolhāpūr-Aṁbā Pass road. Malkāpūr was of little importance until 1844 when the Kolhāpūr Pratinidhī's headquarter was moved to it from Viśaḷgaḍ.

Area and Population.

Of the total population of 3,299 according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 578 and the non-agricultural classes 2,721. Of the latter 571 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 860 persons from commerce; 116 persons from transport, and 1,174 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1884 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers only three-fourth of a square mile. The municipal board is composed of sixteen members, all elected, two seats being reserved for women in wards B and C and two for the Scheduled Castes in ward D. The municipality has appointed three committees, viz., the Managing Committee, the Sanitary Committee and the School Committee to carry on the administration.

Income and Expenditure.

During 1956-57, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 26,740, composed of tax on houses and lands, Rs. 1,819; toll, Rs. 4,946; special sanitary cess, Rs. 624; hotel tax, Rs. 376; rents of lands and houses, Rs. 3,168; other taxes, Rs. 9,207; fees and revenue from markets and slaughter-houses, Rs. 3,760; and from miscellaneous and other heads Rs. 3,440. The total expenditure, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, totalled Rs. 36,476, distributed as follows:—office establishment, Rs. 7,130; lighting establishment, Rs. 2,426; water supply Rs. 2,794; drainage, Rs. 545; conservancy (general and special), Rs. 12,144; roads, Rs. 5,745; grants and contributions, Rs. 320; and miscellaneous and other heads, Rs. 5,372.

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Municipal Services.

There are eight municipal wells in the town, which supply water to the inhabitants. In summer the roads are wetted by water brought from the river. Drainage is by means of gutters, only some of which are stone-lined, others being *kutcha*. There is compulsory primary education in the town managed by the Kolhāpūr District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. There is a high school managed by the Rayat Śikṣaṇ Saṁstha. The municipality gives an annual grant of Rs. 200 to the taluka library which is housed in the municipal building. There is only a length of 1,600 ft. of municipal road in the town. There is a Government dispensary in the centre of the town. There is also a veterinary dispensary maintained by Government in Ucāṭ which is close to the town. There are three municipal *dharmaśāḷās*. The municipality maintains a cremation shed and a burial place. The Mahommedan community has its own burial place.

Temples.

Malkāpūr has two chief temples built of stone and motar One dedicated to Viśveśvara is 58′ × 27′ × 23′ high and the other dedicated to Bhīmāśaṅkar is 55′ × 29′ × 18′ high.

MURGUD.

Murgud (Kagal T. ; 16° 20′ N ; 70° 10′ E ; p. 5,637), is a small town in Kāgal Tālukā, 38 miles south of the Kolhāpūr railway station and on the right bank of the Vedagaṅgā river. Of the total population of 5,637 according to the census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 3,549 and the non-agricultural classes 2,088. Of the latter 837 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 496 persons from commerce, 25 persons from transport, and 730 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1921 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers 0·72 square miles. The municipal council is composed of fourteen members, all elected. One seat is reserved for the Scheduled Castes in ward No. I and another for women in ward No. IV. The Secretary of the municipality is the executive officer and is in charge of general administration. In 1954-55, the income of the municipality, exclusive of extraordinary and debt heads, totalled Rs. 28,574, composed of octroi Rs. 5.653 ; house tax Rs. 3,229 ; vehicle tax Rs. 6,865 ; water tax Rs. 2,224 ; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 7,083 ; interest Rs. 105 ; grants Rs. 625 ; other taxes Rs. 2,725 and other sundry items Rs. 165. The total expenditure in the same year, exclusive of extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 30,561, comprising general administration and collection charges Rs. 5,868 ; public safety Rs. 2,649 ; public health and convenience Rs. 21,653 ; public education Rs. 181 ; sundry expenses Rs. 310.

Municipal Services.

There is no special drainage works for the town, but there are some *kachhā* and *puccā* gutters which take away the sullage water. Water is taken to the town by pipes from Sir Pirājirāo

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Tank. Compulsory primary education in the town is managed by the Kolhāpūr District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. There is no fire service maintained by the municipality. The total length of municipal roads is 5·25 miles of which only 1·7 are metalled. There is a public library in the town for which the municipality makes a small annual grant of Rs. 100. There are two temples, one dedicated to Aṁbābāī and the other to Māruti. There are no cremation or burial grounds maintained by the municipality. The Hindu and Muslim communities have their separate private cremation or burial grounds.

PANDAV DARAH CAVES.

The Pandav Darah Caves (Panhāḷā Peta) apparently of *Buddhist* origin, are cut in a semi-circular scarp about twenty-five feet high overlooking about a thousand feet of thickly wooded hill-sides above the plains six miles west of Panhāḷā and eighteen miles north-west of Kolhāpūr. The group of caves includes a large cistern running into the hill-side, eight dwelling cells, and two large caves, a chapel and a school. In front of the caves are traces of a pillared verandah most of which has fallen into the ravine twenty feet below. Each of the two largest caves has a verandah, a hall divided into three sections or rooms with remains of pillars along the side walls, and an inner cell or shrine each with what is described as a carved elevation probably a *daghobā* or relic-shrine in the centre. The verandah of the chapel is fifteen feet long and seven feet wide. The sections of the chapel hill are said to measure 27′ × 12′, 28′ × 10′, and 29′ × 3½′. The roof is flat and the height of the hill eight feet. In the back wall of the hall a door (6¼′ × 2¾′) opens into an inner room or shrine (10′ × 7′ × 8′) with a carved central elevation apparently a relic-shrine. The school hall which has a flat roof 7½ feet high is divided into three parts the outer 32′ × 6½′, the central 15′ × 9′, and the inner 12′ × 9′, the cell of which the measurements are not given, has like the chapel shrine a carved central elevation apparently a relic-shrine.

PANHALA.

Panhala (Panhāḷā Mahāl; 16° 45′ N; 74° 05′ E; p 2,573), is the head-quarters of the Panhāḷā Mahāl and is the best health resort in the Kolhāpūr district. It has two parts, Panhāḷā fort or Killā Panhāḷā, also called Huzur Bazar (head-quarters market) on the hill-top, and the suburbs of Ravivār, Maṅgaḷvār, Guruvār and Ibrahampūr at the foot of the hill fort. The hill-top is pleasantly broken and adorned with cliffs, pools, and shady springs. Except during the rains the climate is delightful, the days cool, and the nights fresh. The fort is famous for its freedom from cholera chiefly because of its plentiful supply of pure iron-charged water. The best spring is the Nagajharī (Cobra Spring), but it dries up in the hot weather. The chief reservoirs which hold water throughout the year are the Sadoba tank with stone steps 221 feet long, 148 broad and thirty-five deep, and Somāḷā tank also with stone steps 220 feet long, 190 broad and seventeen deep. Of the wells, the chief is the Śrīngār or Andhār bāv which stands west of the fort close

to the rampart.* Near the old Dharmakoṭhi building, every sunday a market is held attended by about 2,000 people. In this market rice, millet, vegetables, spices, and cloth are sold to the value of about Rs. 580. In the suburbs at the foot of the hill-top another small market is held every Wednesday.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1954 under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. The municipal area covers one and half sq. miles. The municipal council is composed of 12 members, all nominated by the Government. The Prant Officer, Northern Division, is the ex-officio president of the municipality and looks after the work of the administration of the Panhāḷā municipality. The Superintendent of the hill station is directed to work as a Secretary of the municipality and looks after all the routine work of the municipality and supervises and controls the staff. The municipality functions mostly under a Government grant. The yearly income from municipal taxes and other sources does not exceed Rs. 7,000 (1957-58).

Municipal Services.

There is a Government dispensary in the heart of the town. There is a mobile Government veterinary dispensary for Panhāḷā : the stockman comes to Panhāḷā once a week (i.e., on Wednesdays). There are eight wells and four tanks which supply water to the villages. The Panhāḷā municipality had in January 1955 constructed a pipe-line viz., Sidbor Pipe Line, by which half of the population of the village is provided with water. There is no special drainage system. There are stone-lined gutters and the cesspools are emptied by the municipality. Compulsory primary education in the town is managed by the Kolhāpūr District School Board. The annual contribution of the municipality has been fixed at Rs. 3,380, but the municipality has not yet paid any contribution. There is no fire service maintained by the municipality. The approximate length of roads within the municipal area is 8 miles, 7 miles of which are metalled.

Burial Places.

Cremation and burial places are not managed by the municipality. There is one place for burial and one for cremation granted for public use by the Government.

Gardens.

The municipality maintains a garden called the Liṅgbāg where the municipality has undertaken to construct a children's park. There is a public library, called the Moropant Granthālaya, and the municipality is constructing a building to house it at a cost of Rs. 17,000. The municipality maintains a rest-house and runs a cafeteria.

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* In the Karvir Puran some of the ponds, springs, and wells are mentioned as *tirtha* or holy pools and bear old mythological names. Thus the Sadoba pool is called Parashar's pool, the Somala ponds Soma pool, the Nagjhari spring Nag Pool, the *ling* well Vasanta pool, the Palang well Madan pond , the Kapur well Ashvalayan pool and the Mhar pond Stambha pool.

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Panhāḷā is being developed into a hill station by the Government. The municipality has been trying its utmost to extend all kinds of amenities to the public within its means.

Panhala Fort.

Panhāḷā Fort crowns one of the tops of the Panhāḷā spur of the Sahyādris, about twelve miles to the north-west of the Kolhāpūr—Ratnāgirī Road. The Panhāḷā uplands are 2772 feet above the sea and about 1300 feet above the Kolhāpūr plain, and the hill top which the Panhāḷā fort crowns rises about 275 feet above the uplands. The fort is about four and half miles in circumference. For about half the distance it is protected by a scarp thirty to fifty feet high which in places is strengthened by a loopholed parapct wall. For the remaining half the fort is surrounded by a strong stone wall fifteen to thirty feet thick at the top and with bastions at convenient distances for carrying guns. The fort was entered through three magnificent double gateways which were reached from the tableland by long flights of stone steps. Of these three gateways Cār Darvājā has been destroyed and third Tīn Darvājā and Wāgh Darvājā are still entire and are finely built with much light tracery on the door posts and architrave. About forty-six yards from the third gateway a breach about forty yards long marks the spot where the British troops forced an entrance when the fort was held by insurgents in 1844. North of the fort with a gorge about ninety yards wide is a natural basin, whose entrance is guarded by two large raised platforms. Two unfailing reservoirs and many pure springs afford an ample water supply, and a large area of rich soil and abundant brushwood secured a garrison from scarcity of grain or firewood.

History.

Panhāḷā is the traditional residence of the sage Parāśr. The Karavīr or Kolhāpūr Purāṇ a compilation of A.D. 1730, mentions Panhāḷā as Pannāgalaya or the home of Serpents. In old inscriptions the name appears as Pranlāk and Padmānaḷ. A copper plate found in Sātārā shows that in A. D. 1191-92 Panhāḷā was the seat of the Silahara Bhoja Rājā II. (1178-1209) who is first mentioned as living at Valvad, apparently either Vālva about fifteen miles south or Vaḷivaḍē about four and half miles north of Kolhāpūr ; in 1187 as ruling at Kolhāpūr and about three years later (1191) as ruling in Panhāḷā fort. Bhoja Rājā is said to have built fifteen forts of which Bāvaḍā, Bhudargaḍ, Panhāḷā, Sātārā and Viśalgaḍ are the chief. About A.D. 1209-10 Bhoja Rājā was defeated by Singhāṇa (1209-1247) the most powerful of the Devagirī Yādavas. After Bhoja Rājā's defeat Panhāḷā seems to have fallen into the hands of petty Marāṭhā chiefs. In 1376 inscriptions record the settlement of Nābhāpūr to the south-east of the fort. On the establishment of the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur in 1489, Panhāḷā came under Bijapur and was fortified with great care. To the Bijāpūr government are ascribed the strong ramparts and gateways of the fort which according to tradition took a hundred years to build. Numerous inscriptions in the fort refer to the reign of Ibrahim Adil Shah, probably Ibrāhim I (1534-1557). In 1659, immediately after the discomfiture

of the Bijāpūr general Afzal Khān, Śivājī took Panhāḷā from Bijapur. In May 1660, to win back the fort from Śivājī, Ali Adil Shah II (1656-1672) of Bijapur sent Sidi Johār who laid siege to Panhāḷā in which Śivājī had shut himself. After four months siege Śivājī escaped to Raṅgaṇā about fifty-five miles south-west of Kolhāpūr, and shortly after Panhāḷā and Pavanagaḍ were taken by Ali Adil Shah in person. In 1673, Śivājī again took Panhāḷā. In 1674, the Bijāpūr generals made an unsuccessful attempt on the fort, and till his death in 1680 Panhāḷā remained in the hands of Śivājī, who for a time kept his son Saṁbhājī under guard at Panhāḷā. After Śivājī's death Saṁbhājī won over to his side the commandant of Panhala and marching on Raigad in the central Koṅkaṇ overthrew Rājārām's faction and established himself as head of the Marāṭhās. About nine years later in 1669 when Saṁbhājī was made prisoner by Aurangzeb's general Takribkhan at Sangameśvar in Ratnāgirī, Panhāḷā came under the Mughals. In 1692, Panhāḷā was retaken by Paraśurām Trimbak, the ancestor of the Kolhāpūr Pant Pratinidhi family of Viśaḷgaḍ. In 1701, the emperor Aurangzeb laid siege to and took Panhāḷā in person. In this year at Panhāḷā, on the 28th of April, Aurangzeb received the English ambassador Sir William Norris who spent 200 gold mohars (£ 300) in fruitless negotiation with the Moghal emperor. Shortly after, in 1701, Panhāḷā was taken from the Moghals by Ramcandra Pant Amātya. In 1705 Tārābai, the widow of Rājārām (1689-1700) made Panhāḷā her head-quarters. In Tārābāī's war with Śāhū of Sātārā in 1708, Śāhū took Panhāḷā and Tārābāī fled to Māḷvaṇ in Ratnāgirī. Shortly after, in 1709, Tārābāī again took Panhāḷā. In 1782 the seat of the Kolhāpūr government was moved from Panhāḷā to Kolhāpūr. In 1827 under Śahājī (1821-1837) Panhāḷa and Pāvanagaḍ were for a time made over to the British Government. In 1844, during the minority of Śivājī IV (1837-1866). Panhāḷā and Pāvanagaḍ were taken by rebels who seized Colonel Ovans, the Resident of Sātārā, when on tour and imprisoned him in Panhāḷā. A British force was sent against the rebels and on the 1st of December, 1844 breached the fort wall, took it by storm, and dismantled the fortifications. A garrison of 1845 militia and a hundred pieces of ordnance were left to guard the fort.

Present state of the Fort.

Of the ruins on the hill top one of the oldest is the citadel in the centre of the fort, surrounded by high ruined walls enclosing a tangled growth of jack, mango, guava, and other trees and bushes. Nothing remains of the old palace but stone foundations and plinths hid in shrubs and underwood. Of three enormous stone and cement granaries built with arched roofs and capable of holding provisions for a large army, the largest known as Gaṅgā Koṭhī, a massive building with two entrances, is nearly choked with rubbish. On either side a staircase leads to a terrace where exist small holes through which large quantities of grain used to be passed. The building is 10,200 feet square and thirty-five feet high. Of the two other granaries, one is 152 feet long, forty feet broad, and eighteen feet high, and the other eighty-eight

feet long, thirty-five broad, and thirty high. Besides these three large granaries the Dharma Koṭhī granary is also a stone building fifty-five feet by forty-eight and thirty-five feet high with an entrance and a staircase leading to a terrace. On the east of the fort close to the rampart stands the Kalāvantiṇ's Sajjā or courtesans' terrace-room. It is nearly a complete wreck except that traces of fine ornament remain in the ceiling. It is sixty feet by thirty-six and fifty-eight feet high. To the north of the fort stands a palace of His Highness the Mahārājā of Kolhāpūr, a stone and mud structure two storeyed and tile-roofed with room for a hundred to two hundred men. To the east of the palace close to the rampart is a massive stone and mortar building called the Sajjekoṭhī. It is two-storeyed, thirty-six feet by thirty-one and forty-one feet high with one entrance and a staircase leading to the upper storey. On the south of the fort close to the rampart stands a small stone building called the Tālīmakhānā or wrestling house with three domed rooms. The Redemahāl to the south of the mamlatdar's office is 101′ × 53′ × 36′ high. Close to the Mamlatdar's office stands Saṁbhajī Mahārāja's temple, ninety feet by forty-six and including the spire fifty-five feet high. The temple is surrounded by an arch roofed building which is used as a rest-house. Opposite Sambhaji's temple is another dedicated to Jijibai Saheb the wife of Saṁbhājī Mahārāja (1712-1760). Of Musalman buildings the most important is the shrine of Sadhobā a Musalman saint. It is surrounded by a stone and mud wall and is twenty-nine feet square and including the dome fifty feet high. Every year a fair or *urus is* held. This place is said to have been the seat of the sage Parāśar whose name the Karavır Mahātmya associates with several objects of interest on Panhāḷā hill. Among these objects to the south of the fort is a rock-cut cave of the sage Parāśar.

PARGAD FORT. **Pargad Fort** (Chāndgaḍ Taluka), on the Beḷagāṅv-Sāvaṅtwāḍī frontier about thirty-five miles west of Beḷagāṅv. is built on a peaked hill in the Sahyadris about 2,000 feet above sea level. The hill sides are wooded, except in places where they have been laid bare by brushwood clearing or *Kumri*. The ascent to the fort is steep by rock-cut steps. The fort which is about forty acres in area is mostly out of repair. Part of the walls, which only line the crests of ravines and one gateway are fallen. The water-supply is from six reservoirs four of which are in repair A temple of Bhavānī and two broken pieces of cannon are the only other remains in the fort. In 1827 a committee of inspection described Pārgaḍ as an extensive hill fort in the Sahyādris 1,900 feet high, about thirty-one miles from Beḷāgāṅv and two miles north of the Rām pass. It was formed by the basalitic band of rock which crowns so many of the Sahyadri hills. The perpendicular scrap varied from forty to hundred feet and was inaccessible in every part except at the gateway where the masonry was only fourteen feet high. The fort was overlocked and commanded on several sides, especially on the north where a hill approached as near as

1,200 feet. The water-supply was from numerous wells supplied by springs. A reservoir in the fort also held water till February. A stone-built temple, the commandant's house, an eight-pounder, and three *Jāmburās* were the only other remains in the fort. The garrison consisted of 360 irregulars. A second committee of inspection in 1842 described the fort as about forty-five miles west of Beḷāgāṅv on a spur of the Sahyādris about 1,200 feet above the plain. The spur contained two distinct heights the most northern of which formed the fort. The hill was triangular in shape, its eastern side forming the base about 2,400 feet, its south-west front about 1,800, and north-west front about 1,650 feet, and the entire breadth of the hill from east to west was about 1,200 yards. The crest of the hill with a natural scrap all round of thirty to sixty feet formed, without any help from art, a strong and almost impregnable position; for though in many places the scarp had a slight slope it was nowhere sufficiently sloped to admit of an assault. The works crowning the crest of the scarp were strong stone wall twelve to twenty feet high, and according to the form of the hill, flanked in various places with bastions fit for ordnance. At the north angle round which the road led to the gate the rock was particularly high, bold and rugged and was crowned by a double line of works of masonry completely commanding the road to the gate which was placed in the north-west front about 600 feet from the western angle of the hill. The only entrance to the fort was up a flight of steps about fifty yards long on the top of which was a small gate facing south-west and much exposed. The passage up the steps was steep and well flanked by the works. The south-east end of the fort was the weakest point forming a sharp acute angle without any defences. The fort was inhabited, but water was scarce and had to be brought by the people from a village outside the slope of the hill to the north-west not far from the gate. The committee observed that even without defences the hill would be regarded as a very strong position, but formed into a fort, with the defences as they then (1842) existed it should be deemed a fort of great strength. Pargad appears among the ten Beḷgāṅv forts held by Śivājī at the time of his death in 1680. In 1749 Pārgaḍ fort was ceded to Sadāśivarāv the cousin of the third Peśavā Bāḷāji. In 1844 Pārgaḍ and Cāndgaḍ were threatened by insurgents*, but a timely reinforcement of irregulars saved them

PAVALA CAVES.

The caves of Pavala (Panhāḷā Mahāl), which are of Buddhist origin, are cut in rock near Jotibā's hill six miles north-west of Kolhāpūr As in the Pāṇḍav Darāh group there are two main caves, one which is supposed to have been the school and the other the chapel or caitya. There is also a rock-cut water cistern. A narrow verandah formerly fronted by pillars is cut along the face of the hill. The entrance into the main

* See Kolhapur History.

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chapel cave leads from a verandah (35′ × 4′ × 9′ high) by a door (9′ × 5′) with side windows each four feet by five. The larger cave is a hall nearly square (34½′ × 32′) and nine feet high. The flat roof rests on three side rows of fourteen pillars each. Twenty-three cells open out from the sides of the hall, each about seven feet long, five broad, and seven high. Between the three side rows of pillars and the cells runs an open passage, forty-one feet long and four feet broad. The smaller cave (31′ × 16′ × 12½′ high), which is supposed to have been a lecture room, is entered by a gate seven and a half feet wide and seven feet high, and has a rock-cut pulpit or raised seat for the teacher. The caves have been taken under the charge of the Archæological Department, but no major repairs have been carried out.

PAVANGAD FORT.

Pavangad Fort (Panhāḷā Mahāl), stands on the Panhāḷā spur about half a mile east of the Panhāḷā fort from which it is separated by a ravine. The chief defence of the fort is a scarped rock fifteen to twenty-five feet high. In most places the steepness of the rock has been increased by artificial scarping and it has been strengthened by a parapet wall of black stone fourteen feet high. This parapet wall has collapsed at many places. The two main entrances were pulled down in 1844 when the fort was dismantled. The fort though deserted has a good water supply.

RUKADI.

Rukadi (Hātkaṇaṅgale T.; 16° 40′ N; 74° 20′ E; p. 5,375), lies on the Kolhāpūr—Miraj road about nine miles east of Kolhāpūr and a mile from the Pañcagaṅga river. Rukaḍī is also a railway station on the Kolhāpūr—Miraj—Sāngalī meter gauge line. The chief objects of interest are a tower, a temple of Mahādeo; and a dargā or Musalman tomb The tower, which is said to have been built by Sadāśivpant, a mamlatdar of the former Kolhapur State, is thirty-eight feet high and 175 feet in circumference. It was formerly used as a lock up for prisoners and is now ruined. The temple of Mahādeva is built of stone and is 15′ × 15′ × 11′ high. The tomb, which is 22′ × 22′ × 18′ high, is said to have been built in honour of Avaliyā a Musalman saint. The tomb has rent-free lands most of the proceeds of which are spent in a yearly fair or *urūs*.

SAMANGAD FORT.

Samangad Fort (Gaḍhiṅglaj T.) an isolated oval-topped hill three and a half miles south of Gaḍhiṅglaj (16° 10′ N; 74° 20′ E), has greatest height of 2,600 feet above the sea and greatest breadth of 260 feet. The hill top is surrounded by an eight-feet high wall. Formerly it was well supplied with water from several rock-cut cisterns. For want of repairs for many years, the cisterns are not functioning at present (1957). In 1676, Sāmāngaḍ was thoroughly repaired by Śivājī. Though one of the smallest of Śivājī's forts, Sāmāngaḍ was one of the strongest. In 1844, injudicious changes introduced by the minister Dājī Paṇḍit, by bringing their lands under the mamlatdār, enraged the Sāmāngaḍ garrison or Gaḍkarīs who rebelled and shut the gates of the fort. On the 13th of October,

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1844 the fort was taken by British troops under General Delamotte and dismantled. Since the disturbances of 1844 the mamlatdar's head-quarters have been moved from Sāmāngaḍ to Gaḍhiṅglaj.[1] The fort is now in a dilapidated condition.

SHIROL.

Shirol (16° 40′ N ; 74° 35′ E ; p. 10,131), the head-quarters of Śiroḷ Tālukā, lies thirty miles east of Kolhāpūr and about four miles to the north of the meeting of the Pañcagaṅgā and Kṛṣna. It is about six miles from Jaisiṅgpūr railway station on the Kolhāpūr—Miraj metre gauge line. A first class road joins Śiroḷ with Kolhāpūr. Śiroḷ is sometimes called Ghumaṭ Śiroḷ or Śiroḷ with the dome, because it used to have a large domed tomb of a Bijāpūr officer named Nūrkhān which Paraśurāma Bhāū Paṭavardhan is said to have destroyed in 1779. Śiroḷ is guarded by a ditch and a wall and is strengthened by an inner citadel. During the wars between Kolhāpūr and the Paṭavardhans in the latter part of the eighteenth century Śiroḷ changed hands several times. In 1780 it was finally taken by Śivājī III (1760-1812) and became a part of Kolhāpūr State. The chief street runs north-south and is lined by good houses. As the water of almost all the wells is brackish, drinking water is brought from the river which is about a mile distant. There is a Government dispensary in the town and also a high school run by a private society. There is also a public library. Shiroḷ has two large temples, two mosques, and a tower. Of the two temples Kāleśvar's is the oldest though of no great age as it is built of stone and mortar. It is thirty-five feet long, twenty-five feet broad, and twenty-eight feet high. The other temple, which is dedicated to Dattātreya is held specially sacred. The only object of worship in the temple is a slab of stone on which an open hand is carved. It is called the temple of Bhojanapātra or the dinner plate, and a stone vessel or patra is still preserved in which, according to tradition, the god Dattātreya once took a meal or *bhojan* with a holy Brāhmaṇ of Śiroḷ. Of the two mosques which are said to have been built by Sūrkhān of Bijāpūr, one is thirty-two by twenty-two feet and the other thirty-five by twenty-seven feet. The ruined tower which stands in the centre. of the town is said to have been built by the Kolhāpūr State in 1833 A. D. It is thirty-five feet high and 150 feet round.

SHIROLI.

Shiroli (Karvir T. ; 16° 40′ N ; 74° 15′ E ; p. 2,174), is on the Puṇē Beḷgaṅv road about six miles north-west of Kolhāpūr. In 1855, the village which was then almost entirely of thatched huts was destroyed by fire. Since the 1855 fire, many tiled houses have been built, several of them two-storeyed high. Śirolī is a halting place on the journey from Poona to Beḷgāṅv and has two rest-houses. The water is drawn from a reservoir near the village about twenty-four acres in area. Near Śirolī the Pañcagaṅgā is crossed by an iron bridge close to which is a tomb in honour of Bālē Pir where every April a fair or *urūs* is held attended by about 10,000 people. In the centre of the village is a well-built temple of Sarveśvar.

[1] Details of the 1844 disturbance are given above under History.

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VADGAON.

Area and Population.

Vadgaon (Hātkaṇaṅgalē T.; 16° 45′ N; 74° 30′ E; p. 6,173), is ten miles north-east of Kolhāpūr.

Of the total population of 6,173 according to the census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 2,102 and the non-agricultural classes 4,071. Of the latter 1,811 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 1,146 persons from commerce; 102 persons from transport; and 1,012 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of the town are managed by a municipality established in 1887 and now functioning under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III) of 1901. The municipal area covers nearly 5/8 square miles. The municipal council is composed of 16 members. Two of the seats are reserved for women, one to rotate in wards A and B, and the other to rotate in wards C and D. In 1954-55, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads was Rs. 33,880, composed of income from municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 16,651; revenue from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 14,615; grants and contributions Rs. 2,391 and miscellaneous, Rs. 223. The expenditure during the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 43,322. Of this general administration absorbed Rs. 6,607; public safety; Rs. 2,386; public health and convenience, Rs. 29,208 and other items, Rs. 5,121. There is a Government dispensary in the town and also a maternity home. There is also a veterinary sub-dispensary run by Government. The municipality has contributed Rs. 2,500 towards the cost of a new building for this dispensary, which is now (February, 1956) under construction. There are no special drainage works for the town. In almost all parts of the town there are *pucca* gutters and waste water is drained through these. There is piped water supplied from the Lakṣmī tank. Although the tank is in possession of Government in view of the fact that the municipality contributed Rs. 50,000 towards its construction, about sixty years ago, the water is supplied free to the municipality The distribution of water is, however, under the control of the municipality. Compulsory primary education in the town is administered by the Kolhāpūr District School Board, the municipality contributing its statutory share of the expenditure. There is a high school managed by a private institution. There is no fire service manitained by the municipality. There are 5½ miles of road in the town, 2½ miles of which are metalled There is a municipal cremation ground in the north of the town. There is a burial place for Mahommedans managed by the Mahommedan community.

History.

During the feuds between the Kolhāpūr State and the Pātwardhans at the close of the eighteenth century Vadgaon was several times burnt. About 1761-62 it was plundered by Raghunātharāv, uncle of the Peśava. Formerly during the reign of Sambhājī (1712-1760) Vaḍgāṅv was a favourite residence of the Kolhāpūr family and had a strong detachment of h[illegible] Vaḍgāṅv has a large Brāhmanic temple of Lakṣmī and a Ja[illegible]

temple of Lakṣmī, which is about 4,160 feet to the south-west of the town, is in Hemāḍpantī style, twenty-four feet long twenty-one broad and thirty high. The Jain temple in the centre of the town is said to have been built in 1696 on one Adapā Bhugśeṭ at a cost of Rs. 40,000.

VADI NARSINHA.

Vadi Narsinha (Śiroḷ T.), commonly called Narsobā's Vāḍī, a *vāḍī* or suburb of Śiroḷ (160° 40′ N; 74° 35′ E); a spot richly wooded with babhul and tamarind, lies three miles south of Śiroḷ at the meeting of the Kṛṣṇā and Pañcagaṅgā. It is named after Narsinha Sarasvatī, who for twelve years is said to have lived at the sacred meeting of the rivers. Most of the people are Brahman *pujāris* or ministrants of the deity Narsinha. Vāḍī Narsinha is a holy place and is visited by large numbers of pilgrims. It has two large temples, one dedicated to Dattātreya and the other to Nārāyaṇ Svāmī. The temple of Dattātreya to the south of the village on the river bank is twenty-four feet long, twelve broad and twelve high. From the temple to the river bed runs a flight of steps 137 feet long and 127 broad. West of the temple of Dattātreya lies the temple of Nārāyaṇ Svāmī who is said to have been taught religion direct by Dattātreya. It is fifty-one feet long, twenty-two broad and fourteen feet high. At the meeting of the Kṛṣṇā and Pañcagaṅgā is another flight of steps of hewn stone and mortar, 143 feet long and sixty-seven feet wide. There is a high school in the town.

Besides the two villages of Aurvad and Gaurvad in Beḷgāṅv granted rent-free to Narsinha Sarasvatī, the temple is in receipt of Rs. 1,340 a year in cash. During the whole month from the dark fifth of *Magh* or February-March a fair is held attended by about 5,000 people from a distance of 200 miles. Piece-goods, copper and brass vessels and other articles in daily use are offered for sale in temporary booths. The total sales in the month amounted to about a lakh of rupees. On the dark 12th of *Aśvin* or September-October, the day on which *Dattātraya* is said to have disappeared from the world, another small fair is held attended by about 10,000 people.

VISHALGAD FORT.

Vishalgad Fort (Śahuvāḍī T.; 16° 50′ N; 73° 45′ E; p. 79), crowns the Gajāpur hill about forty-five miles north-west of Kolhāpūr. It is 3,200 feet long and 1,040 feet broad. The walls, gateways and towers are almost entirely ruined. Besides the old mansion of the Kolhāpūr Pratinidhi the chief building is a mosque with a tomb to Hajrat Malik Rehanzir seventeen feet long by fifteen broad and eight high. This mosque is visited both by Hindus and Musalmans. Every year on the 13th of the Musalman month *Zilhāj* a fair or *urūs* is held attended by 300 to 400 people. To meet the cost of this fair the mosque has a yearly cash allowance of Rs. 90. The fort is watered by the Bhopāḷ and Ardhacandra (half-moon) reservoirs, and by a cistern. The Bhopāḷ reservoir which is said to have been built by Bhopāḷ Rājā, is 6,400 feet square. The Ardhacandra reservoir is seventeen feet long, fifteen broad and eight deep,

and is said to have been built by Ramcandra Pant Amātya who held the fort after its capture by Śivājī in 1659. The cisten, which also is said to have been built by Ramcandra, is 324 feet square and ten feet deep.

According to tradition, about the year 1,000 Viśāḷgaḍ was in possession of a Hindu king named Bhopāl who built the reservoir which still bears his name. On the wall of the mosque which is dedicated to Malik Rahan Pir, a Persian inscription runs :—

"A Marāṭhā king named Bhopāḷ held the fort. I Malik Rahan came and six times besieged it without success. In the seventh siege I took it. Be brave and thou shalt prosper." Another inscription on a tower known as the Daulat Burūj (tower of wealth) runs—

In this world "perseverance overcome difficulties." "The Daulat tower has been completed with elegance." "If you wish to learn its date, it lies in the letters Daulat Burūj."

According to Major Graham (author of Kolhāpūr) the letters of Daulat Buruj give the apparantly incorrect date of 645 that is A. D. 1247. The Musalmans failed to maintain their hold of Viśāḷgaḍ. In 1470 the Bahāmani general Mahmūd Gawān took Viśāḷgaḍ after a nine months' siege. After the fall of the Bahmani dynasty in 1489 Viśāḷgaḍ came under Bijāpūr, and continued under Bijāpūr, till in 1659, it was taken by Śivājī and in 1660 given by him in grant to Paraśurām Trimbak. In 1661 a large Bijāpūr army under Fazilkhān besieged Viśāḷgaḍ for several months and tried to take it by mining the western corner and bombarding it from the top of the Ghoṅasḷi hill. Traces of the wells which were dug for the Bijāpūr army remain at the neighbouring village of Gajāpūr and the rocky ground which was occupied by the troops is still known as Bādaśahācā Maḷ or the royal terrace. In 1730 when Kolhāpūr was finally separated from Satara, the grant of Viśāḷgaḍ was continued to Janārdan Pant by fresh patent or sanad passed by Sambhājī (1712-1760). Till 1844 Viśāḷgaḍ continued to be the head-quarters of the Kolhāpūr Pratinidhi. In 1844, as the fort had been occupied by the rebels, it was dismantled and the Pratinidhi's head-quarters were moved to Malkāpūr.

Valve (Radhanagari T. 16° 25′ N ; 74° 05′ E ; p. 4,225), also known as Kasabā Vaḷve is a large village on the right bank of the Dūdhagaṅgā about fifteen miles south of Kolhāpūr. Of objects of interest Vāḷve has the mansion or *vāḍā* of the dumāḷedār or part-owner of the village, a square building of mud and sun-burnt bricks about 210 feet long and 110 broad. Vaḷve has also an old mosque about eighteen feet long, fourteen broad and fifteen high, there is also a tomb dedicated to a member of the Ghatge family. At this tomb, from the dark 8th to the dark 10th of *Māgh* or January-February a fair used to be held till 1953, which was attended by about 7,000 people.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the district except the Chandgad taluka which was merged in Kolhapur district after the reorganization of Bombay State in 1956.

Column 1.—The names are given both in English and Devanagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under:—

ā-आ ; ī-ई ; ū-ऊ ; ṛ-ऋ ; c-च ; ch-छ् ; ṭ-ट् ; ṭh-ठ् ; ḍ-ड् ; ḍh-ढ ; n-न् ; ṅ-ङ ; ñ-ञ ; ṇ-ण ; s-स ; ś-श ; ṣ-ष् ; ḷ-ळ ; ē-ऍ ;

Abbreviations Indicating Talukas:

AJ.—Ajra.

BHD.—Bhudargad.

BVD.—Bavada.

CGD.—Chandgad

GGJ.—Gadhinglaj

HK.—Hatkanangale.

KG.—Kagal

KV.—Karvir.

PN.—Panhala.

RDN.—Radhanagari.

SHW.—Shahuwadi.

SI.—Shirol.

Column 2.—Direction and (*b*) Travelling distance of the village from the taluka Head-quarters Abbreviation used showing direction from taluka Head-quarters.

E.—East.

W.—West.

N.—North.

S.—South.

NE.—North East.

SE.—South East.

NW.—North West.

SW.—South West.

HQ.—Head-quarters.

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Column 3.— (*a*) Area (Sq. miles); (*b*) Total population; (*c*) Number of households; (*d*) Total number of Agricultural population.—

Column 4.—(*a*) Post office; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 5.— (*a*) Railway station; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 6.— (*a*) Weekly bazar; (*b*) Bazar day; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

Column 7.—(*a*) Nearest motor stand; (*b*) Its distance from the village

Column 8.—Drinking water facilities available in the village:-

br.—brook.

cl.—canal.

n.—nalla.

o.—scarcity of water.

p.—pond.

pl.—pipe line.

spr.—spring.

str.—stream.

t.—tank.

W.—big well.

w.—small well.

Column 9.—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription.

Sl.—school; (h).—high; (m).—middle; (pr).—primary.

mun.—municipality.

pyt.—panchayat.

cs—co-operative society;

[(c)—credit; (fmg).—farming; (i).—industrial; (con).—consumers; (mis).—miscellaneous; (mp).—multipurpose; (sp).—sale and purchase; (wvg).—weaving.]

fr.—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calendar:—

Ct.—Chaitra; Vak.—Vaishakha; Jt.—Jaishtha; Asd.—Ashadha; Srn.—Shravana; Bdp.—Bhadrapada; An.—Ashvina.; Kt.—Kartika; Mrg.—Margashirsha, Ps.—Pausha; Mg—Magh; Phg.—Phalguna; Sud.—Shudha (first fortnight of the month); Vad.—vadya (Second fortnight of the month); tl.—temple; M.—Math; mq.—mosque; dg.—dargah; dh.—dharmashala; gym.—gymnasium. ch.—chavadi; lib.—library; dp.—dispensary; cch.—Church; ins.—inscription.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

(G.C.P.) M-C VI 708—57a

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ācirṇē ; BVD. ; आचिर्णे ..	SW ; 16–0	6·2 ; 1480 ; 264 ; 1474.	Local
Ādamāpūr ; BHD. ; आदमापूर ..	NE ; 7–0	1·5 ; 619 ; 108 ; 617.	Murgud 2–0
Aḍolī ; RDN. ; अडोली ..	S ; 19–0	4·4 ; 711 ; 145 ; 679.	Gargoti 11–0
Āḍūr ; KV. ; आडूर	W ; 8–3	1·2 ; 593 ; 119 ; 399.	Kolhapur 9–0
Aināpūr ; GGJ. ; ऐनापूर ..	SW ; 5–6	1·9 ; 979 ; 184 ; 953.	Gadhinglaj 5–0
Ainārī ; BVD. ; ऐनारी ..	N ; 5–0	3·7 ; 486 ; 93 ; 440.	Kharepatan 17–0
Ainavāḍī ; SHW. ; ऐनवाडी ..	W ; 8–0	2·7 ; 220 ; 43 ; 153.	Malkapur 6–0
Ainī ; RDN. ; ऐनी ..	SE ; 7–0	9·7 ; 940 ; 191 ; 925.	Gargoti 17–0
Ājarē ; AJ. ; आजरें ..	HQ ; 3–0	3·0 ; 5353 ; 992 ; 2666.	Local
Ākanūr ; RDN. ; आकनूर ..	E, 8–0	1·5 ; 1186 ; 225 ; 1094	Murgud 9–0
Ākarḍē ; BHD. ; आकर्डे ..	W ; 2–0	2·1 ; 1460 ; 272 ; 1268.	Gargoti 2–0
Ākhavaṇē ; BVD. ; आखवणें ..	N ; 9–0	3·1 ; 617 ; 106 ; 429	Kharepatan 15–0
Akivāṭ ; SL. ; अकिवाट ..	N ; 6–0	6·0 ; 3322 ; 547 ; 3143.	Kurundwad 5–0
Ākurḍē ; PN. ; आकुर्डे ..	S ; 12–0	1·3 ; 507 ; 92 ; 485.	Kalekasaba 7–0
Ākurle ; SHW. ; आकुर्ले ..	N ; 8–0	2·3 ; 721 ; 119 ; 720.	Malkapur 9–0
Ālābād ; KG. ; आलाबाद ..	S ; 25–0	1·8 ; 931 ; 180 ; 853.	Kapashi 1–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	48-0	Phonda	Mon.	7-0	Phonda	6-0	w.	2 Sl (pr. & m).; pyt.; cs. fr. (Ps. Sud. 15); 11tl.
Kolhapur	27-0	Murgud	Tue.	2-0	..	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	42-0	Radha nagari.	Sun.	12-0	Kadgaon	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr). 7tl.; ch
Kolhapur	9-0	Sangrul	Thu.	3-0	..	0 3	w.	Sl (pr); cs. (mis.); Kedarlingdev fr. (ct. Vad 10). 3tl.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	34-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	2 0		2-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr); cs.; Manjaidevi; fr. (Mg).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	8 0	Bavada	5-0	w.	Sl (pr)., 2tl.
Kolhapur	36-0	Malkapur	Fri.	6 0	Malkapur	6 0	w., str.	Sl (pr)., tl
Kolhapur	31-0	Saravade	Fri.	7-0	.	5 0	spr.	Sl (pr).; cs (c).; Shivaratri fr. (Mg. Vad. 13). 7tl.; mq.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Local	Fri.		Local		w.	7Sl (6pr. h.); 2cs (c. mis.); Ramtirth fr (Mg. Vad. 30)., 8tl.; 2M.; 3mq.; 2dg.; 2dh; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 3dp.; ch.
Kolhapur	37-0	Saravade	Fri.	7-0	..	1-0	w.	Sl (pr); 2cs. (c, Mis.); fr. (ct. Sud. 1), 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Shengaon	Thu	1-0	..	1-0	rv	Sl (pr); cs.; Shri Mahadev fr. (Mg).; 5tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	44-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	8-0	Bavada	12-0	w.	Sl (p.)., 2tl.
Jaysingpur	13-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	5-0	Local		rv., w., t	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c), 11tl.; 2M.; 2mq.; dg., dh.; gym; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kale-Kasaba.	Sat.	7 0	.	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ur. (ct., sud, 8)., tl., mq.
Kolhapur	20-0	Kokrud	Wed.	2-0	Kamalapur	9 0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Kapashi	Mon	1-0	.	1-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr.); Hazarat Ur. (month of Dastagir on 11th.); 2tl; mq.; dg.; ch.; mosque is famous for its sculpture.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ālās ; SL. ; आलास ..	SE ; 7-0	8·7 ; 3875 ; 732 ; 3377.	Narsinh-wadi. 4-0
Ālavē ; PN. ; आळवे ...	SW ; 4-0	1·2 ; 648 ; 124 ; 568.	Panhala Kasaba. 6-0
Ālatūr ; SHW. ; आळतूर ..	NW ; 8-0	4·3 ; 748 ; 188 ; 706.	Malkapur 6-0
Ālate (Kasabā) ; HK. ; (कसबा) आळते.	N ; 1-5	1·22 ; 5214 , 1065 ; 4204.	Local
Āmajjāī Vharavade ; RDN. ; आमजाई व्हरवडे .	S ; 11-0	1·1 ; 704 ; 116 ; 695.	Murgud 15-0
Āmatevāḍi ; PN. ; आमतेवाडी ..	N ; 6-0	1·0 ; 206 ; 38 , 205.	Kodoli Kasaba. 5-0
Āmaśi-Dumālā ; KV. ; आमशी (दुमाळा) ..	W ; 14-0	2·1 ; 1304 , 243 ; 1210.	Kolhapur 13-0
Āṁbā ; SHW. ; आंबा	NW ; 12-0	3·5 ; 525 ; 122 ; 393	Local
Āṁbāḍē ; AJ. ; आंबाडे ..	W ; 10-0	3·2 ; 239 ; 52 ; 237.	Ajra 11-0
Āṁbap ; HK. ; आंबप ..	W ; 14-0	5·7 ; 3367 ; 592 , 2848.	Vadgaon (Kasaba). 3-0
Āṁbarḍē ; PN. ; अंबर्डे ..	SW ; 17-0	0·7 ; 215 ; 36 ; 215.	Kale Kasaba. 1-0
Āṁbarḍē , SHW. ; आंबर्डे ..	S ; 3-0	5·6 ; 1103 ; 213 ; 1092.	Shahuwadi 3-0
Āṁbavaḍē ; PN. ; आंबवडे .	E ; 2-0	1·9 ; 934 ; 179 ; 896.	Panhala Kasaba. 2-0
Āṁbavaṇē ; BHD. ; अंबवणे ..	N ; 2-0	1·7 , 606 ; 114 ; 602.	Gargoti 1-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Jaysingpur	13-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	5-0	Narsoba-wadi.	4-0	rv.	3Sl (3pr).; 3cs. (3c).; 8tl.; 2mq.; dg.; ch.; Peer darga is famous for sculpture. Famous for the sculptures on the Temples.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kotoli	Tue.	2-0	Kotoli	2-0	w.,spr.	Sl. (pr).; cs.; Bhairavdev; fr. (Vak., Sud., 7): tl., 2gym.; ch.. lib.
Kolhapur	35-0	Malkapur	Fri.	6-0	Nile	3-0	str.	Sl (pr.); 2tl.; dh.
Hatkanangale.	2-0	Local	Sat.		.	0-3	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt., 4cs.; (4c). Ramlingdeo and Renukadevi fair (on every Monday during Shravan month); 6tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.; Cch.
Kolhapur	20-0	Ghotavade	Mon.	3-0	Local		rv.	Sl (pr); Antajai Devi fr. (An., Sud. 10) 2tl.; gym. ch.
Kolhapur	17-0	Satwe	Sat.	0-4	.	3-0	w., spr	Sl (pr). cs. (mis). tl. gym.
Kolhapur	13-0	Sangrul	Thu.	3-0	Nashir	4-0	n.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	10-0		0-2	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.: tl; dh.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	51-0	Ajra	Fri.	11 0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr); Dahikala fr. (Mrg., Vad. 9).; 3tl
Kolhapur	10-0	Vadgaon (Kasaba).	Mon.	3-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr.); pyt.; 2cs. (2c). frs. (Mg. Sud. 6.; ct. Sud. 1.; Mg. sud. 15) 15tl.; M.; mq.; 2dg. 4gym.; lib.; 2dp.
Kolhapur	20 0	Kale Kasaba.	Sa.	1-0	Kale Kasaba.	1 6	rv.	tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	31-0	Malkapur	Fri.	5-0	.	4-0	str.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct., Vad.. 3) 2tl.. gym.: ch.
Kolhapur	11 0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; Shivaratri fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; 2tl.; gym.: ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	1-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 12cs. (c. fmg.) 3tl.; 2gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Āmbolī ; SHW. ; आंबोळी ..	N ; 22-0	1·1 ; 326 ; 63 ; 305.	Arale 3-0
Āmeṇī , SHW. : आमेणी ..	N ; 8-0	2·2 ; 593 ; 111 ; 593.	Malkapur 5-0
Aṇadūr ; BVD. ; अणदूर ..	E ; 10-0	4·8 ; 446 ; 100 ; 445.	Gagan Bavada. 11-0
Āṇāje : RDN. ; आणाजे ..	S ; 8-0	1·2 , 804 , 145 ; 706.	Murgud 17-0
Anaskure , SHW. , अनस्कुरे ..	W ; 22-0	5·5 ; 581 ; 124 . 577.	Khare Patan
Antivaḍe ; BHD. ; अंतिवडे ..	SW ; 12-0	3·0 ; 230 ; 38 ; 230.	Shengaon 11-0
Anturlī ; BHD : अंतुर्ली ..	W 17-4	4·2 ; 271 ; 47 ; 266.	Shengaon 16-0
Ānūr ; KG. : आनूर ..	S. 10-4	2·2 ; 1172 ; 217 ; 1089.	Kurli 6-0
Āpaṭal ; RDN. ; आपटाळ ..	N : 7-0	2·4 ; 467 ; 94 ; 465.	Murgud 21-0
Āpaṭī ; PN. : आपटी ..	E ; 1-0	0·9 ; 537 ; 107 ; 471.	Panhala Kasaba. 1-0
Āraḍal ; Aj. ; आरडाळ ..	N ; 8-0	3·2 ; 1585 ; 294 ; 1528.	Uttur 2-0
Āralaguṇḍi ; BHD. ; आरळगुंडी ..	S ; 14-0	4·7 ; 855 ; 159 ; 852.	Uttur 6-0
Āralaguṇḍī ; GGJ. ; आरळगुंडी ..	SE ; 11-0	1·3 ; 709 ; 137 ; 602.	Sankeshwar 3-0
Ārale ; KV. ; आरळे ..	SW ; 16-4	1·7 ; 610 ; 111 ; 594.	Kolhapur 18-0
Ārale (Dumala) ; PN. : आरळे (दुमाला)	N ; 6-0	1·9 ; 1603 ; 289 ; 1401.	Koduli Kasaba 4-0
Āre ; KV. ; आरे ..	SW ; 9-4	1·1 ; 1595 ; 288 ; 1100.	Kolhapur 8-0
Arjunavāḍ ; SL. ; अर्जुनवाड ..	NE ; 4-0	3·5 ; 2006 ; 339 ; 1710.	Shirol 4-0
Arjunavāḍā ; RDN. ; अर्जुनवाडा	E ; 15-0	1·2 ; 1128 ; 203 ; 1077.	Murgud 15-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	50-0	Arale	Sat.	3-0		12-0	rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	33-0	Malkapur	Fri.	5-0	Kapashi	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.
Kolhapur	23-0	Salavan	Fri.	4-0		2-0	rv.; str	3tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Kasaba Turale.	Thu.	4 0			rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	36-0	Bhogaon	Wed	18-0	Bhogaon	18-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl
Kolhapur	47-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	8-0	Dasewadi	4-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	49 0	Kadgaon	Fri.	10-0	Tambale	0-4	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Mhakve	Sun.	2-0		2-0	rv.w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Hanuman Jayanti Utsav. (Ct. Sud 15).; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Dhamod	Sat.	4-0			rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	14-0	Panhala-Kasaba.	Sun.	1 0	Panhala	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav dev. fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 4tl.; dg:
Hukkeri Road.	33-0	Uttur	Sat.	2-0		0-6	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairi dev fr. (Mg. in any year fixed by the village people): gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	44-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	5-0	Uttur	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling fr. (Mg).; 3tl.
Hukkeri Road.	22-0	Sankeshwar	Fri.	3-0		4-0	rv.	Sl (pr)., cs.; Vakadadevi fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 4tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	18 0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	4-0			w.	Sl (pr); Pir Ur. (in Ct).; 3tl.; dg.
Kolhapur	16-0	Satave	Sat.	1-0	Borpadle	3-0	w.	2Sl (pr & m).; pyt.; 5tl.; M.; gym.
Kolhapur	9-0	Kandgaon	Thu.	2-0		4-0	rv.	2Sl (2pr).: cs.; fr.; (Mg. Vad. 13).; Pir Ur. (in Vsk).; 9tl.; 3M.; mq.; dg.: 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Miraj	3-0	Miraj	Tue.	3-0	Miraj	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr.); pyt.; cs. (c. mis.); Arjundeo fr. (13th to 15th March).; 2tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2dp.
Kolhapur	14-0	Walave	Sat.	1-0		2-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Arjunavāḍā ; KG. ; अर्जुनवाडा ..	S; 16-2	1·5; 746; 143; 708.	Kapashi 3-0
Arjunavāḍī ; GGJ. ; अर्जुनवाडी ..	S; 18-0	2·1; 674; 103; 662.	Nesari 2-4
Ārjunī ; KG. ; आर्जुनी ..	S; 16-0	2·9; 787; 174; 768.	Nipani 4-0
Ārul ; SHW. ; आरुळ ..	S; 1-4	1·6; 453; 77; 420.	Shahuwadi 2-0
Āsagāṅv ; PN. ; आसगांव ..	S; 12-4	0·4; 308; 57; 296.	Kale Kasaba
Āsalaj ; BVD. आसलज .	E; 6-0	5·3; 528; 110; 479.	Gagan Bavada. 6-0
Asaṇḍolī ; BVD. ; असंडोली .	NE; 15-0	3·4; 548; 123; 537.	Kale Kasaba. 7-0
Asaṇagāṅv ; RDN. ; असणगांव .	S; 7-0	2·5; 255; 53; 252.	Gargoti 19-0
Asaṇē (included in Phejiwade) RDN.: असणें.	W; 14-0	738; 143; 705.	Murgud; 31-0
Asurle ; PN. ; असुर्ले ..	S; 6-0	2·6; 1380; 249; 1286.	Panhala Kasaba. 5-0
Āṭegāṅv ; RDN. ; आटेगांव .	SE; 5-0	1·4; 307; 50; 304.	Murgud 18-0
Atigre ; HK. ; अतिग्रे ..	W; 4-0	2·6; 1375; 235; 1229.	Shahupuri 3-0
Ātyāl ; GGJ. ; आत्याळ ..	W; 3-0	1·5; 1433; 260; 1290.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Auranāl ; GGJ. ; औरनाळ ..	E; 3-4	0·9; 857; 158; 851.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Auravāḍ ; SL. ; औरवाड .	SW; 3-2	1·8; 1654; 284; 1459.	Narasingwadi. 0-4
Āvalī ; PN. ; आवळी ..	N; 6-0	2·4; 1130; 228; 1023.	Bambavade 4-0
Āvalī Bk. ; RDN. ; आवळी बु.।। ..	S; 9-0	2·2; 1181; 237; 1107.	Gargoti 16-0
Āvalī Kh. ; RDN. ; आवळी खुर्द ..	NE; 9-0	0·8; 552; 110; 460.	Murgud 17-0
Āvaṇḍī ; AJ. ; आवंडी ..	NW; 6-0	5·0; 294; 61; 287.	Ajra 6-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 34-0	Kapashi Mon. 3-0	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwar fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 3tl.; ch.
Belgaum 25-0	Nesari Thu. 2-4	Nesari 2-1	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 26-0	Nipani Thu. 4-0	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 30-0	Malkapur Fri. 4-0	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 10).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 13-0	Kale Kasaba. Sat.	0-2	w	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 29-0	Palsambe Tue. 1-0	0-2	rv. str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.
Kolhapur 20-0	Tisangi (Salvan). Fri. 3-0	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 38-0	Radha-nagari. Sun. 8-0	Radha-nagari. 7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 45-0	Radha-nagari. Sun. 14-0	Local	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Gangobadev fr. (Mrg. Sud. 1).; 3tl.
Kolhapur 8-0	Panhala-Kasaba. Sun. 5-0	Local	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Kolhapur 21-0	Ghotavade Mon. 5-0	Solankur 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Rukadi 1-0	Rukadi 1-0	Local	t.	Sl (pr).; cs(c).; Maruti deo fr. (Ct. Sud. 9); 4tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 33-0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 3-0	Local 0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmi fr. (in any month); 3tl.; gym.
Hukkeri 25-0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 3-0		str. w.	Sl (pr)., 2cs. (sp. c).; Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud. 15); 2tl.; M.; ch.
Jaysingpur 9-0	Kurundwad Thu. 2-0	Local 0-1	rv	2Sl (2pr).; cs.(c).; 2tl.; mq.; 4dg.; dh.; gym.
Kolhapur 16-0	Bambavade Thu. 4-0	Local 0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur 30-0	Saravade Fri. 7-0	Local	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15); 4tl.; 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur; 19-0	Ghotavade Mon. 4-0	2-0	rv	Sl (pr).; 2cs.(c).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 48-0	Ajra Fri. 6-0	Ajra 0-0	c.	2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bācaṇī ; KG. ; बाचणी ..	W ; 10–0	1·6 ; 1068 ; 219 ; 787.	Valve Bk. 5–0
Bācaṇī ; KV. ; बाचणी ..	SW ; 12–0	1·9 ; 1110 ; 219 ; 1100.	Kolhapur 12–0
Bācī AJ. ; बाची .	N ; 2–0	1·3 ; 88 ; 17 ; 88.	Ajra 2–0
Bahireśvar ; KV. ; बहिरेश्वर ..	W ; 13–0	1·5 ; 1085 ; 208 ; 915.	Kolhapur 10–0
Bahirevāḍī ; AJ. ; बहिरेवाडी ..	NW ; 15 0	5·4 ; 2080 ; 408 ; 1737.	Gadhinglaj 4–0
Bahirevāḍī ; PN. ; बहिरेवाडी ..	NE ; 8–0	1·5 ; 946 ; 181 ; 910.	Kodoli Kasaba 2–0
Bājara Bhogāṅv ; PN. ; बाजार भोगांव. ..	SW ; 14–0	2·1 ; 1126 ; 200 ; 1000.	Panhala Kasaba. 12–0
Bāleghāl ; KG. ; बाळेघाळ ..	S ; 25–0	4·4 ; 1700 ; 372 ; 1502.	Kapashi 2-0
Bālīkre ; KG. ; बाळीक्रे ..	SE ; 23–0	1·5 ; 222 ; 60 ; 212.	Kapashi 1–0
Bāliṅge ; KV. ; बालिंगे ..	W ; 4–0	4·6 ; 638 ; 132 ; 509.	Kolhapur 4–0
Bāmaṇī ; KG. ; बामणी ..	W ; 21–0	2·3 ; 906 ; 166 ; 769.	Kagal 6–0
Bāṁbarḍe ; RDN. ; बांबर्डे ..	S ; 15–0	0·6 ; 329 ; 66 ; 326.	Gargoti 25–0
Bāṁbavaḍe ; SHW. ; बांबवडे ..	SW ; 8–0	1·4 ; 739 ; 136 ; 351.	Local

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	14-0	Ispurli	Fri.	2-4		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (mp. sp). Vithalai devi fr. (Phg; Vad 10).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.. gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-0	Halapi	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr.); cs.; Peer Ur. (in Vaak).; 5tl.; dg.; 3gym.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Ajra	Fri.	2-0	Ajra	2-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	10-0	Sangrul	Thu.	3-0	Kopardo	5-0	t. rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (on the first monday after Srn. Vad. 8).; 3tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Local	Tue.		Local		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; fr. (in February each year); 6tl.; 2mq.; dh.; gym.; ch. lib., (Village medical centre).
Kolhapur	15-0	Kodoli Kasaba.	Thu.	2-0	Kodoli	2-0	w	cs. (mis).; fr (Ct. Sud. 12).; tl.; gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	10-0	Local	Wed.		Local		rv.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; 2tl.; lib.; dp.
Chikodi	37-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-0	Kapashi	2-0	w. str.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; cs.; fr. (Mg. Vad 4).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; (Rural medical centre).
Chikodi	27-0	Kapashi	Mon.	1-0	Kapashi	0-6	str.	Sl (pr).; fr (Mg. Sud. 15).; tl.
Kolhapur	4-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	4-0	Local	0-4	w.	Sl (pr.); cs.; fr. (after Ct. Sud. 15); tl.; dg.; gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	12-0	Khebawade	Tue.	2-0		6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch. inscriptions in the Jain Vasti Temple.
Kolhapur	39-0	Radha nagari.	Sun.	9-0		0-0	rv. str.	Mg. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Kolhapur	20-0	Local	Thu.		Local		w. str.	3Sl (pr. M. h).; cs., Mahadev fr. (Ct. Sud. 12) 3tl.; 2dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bāmaṇē ; BHD. ; बामणें ..	E ; 9-0	1·6 ; 513 ; 101 ; 470.	Uttur 4-0
Bānage ; KG. ; बानगे ..	SE ; 13-0	3·7 ; 1706 ; 356 ; 1542.	Kurli 5-0
Bāndivaḍe ; PN. ; बांदिवडे ..	W ; 10-0	1·7 ; 105 ; 72 ; 404.	Panhala Kasaba. 0-0
Baraki ; SHW. ; बरकी ..	W ; 15-0	7 6 ; 390 ; 70 ; 390.	Bhogaon 15-0
Bārve ; BHD. ; बार्वे ..	S, 7 0	2·5 ; 1084 ; 174, 950.	Uttur 6-0
Basarge (Bk.) ; GGJ. ; बसर्गे बु.॥	SE ; 10-0	2·9 ; 2301, 414 ; 2009.	Local
Basarge (Kh.) ; GGJ. ; बसर्गे खु.	E ; 9-0	0·9 ; 12 ; 2 ; 11.	Halkarni 1-0
Basarevāḍī ; BHD. ; बसरे वाडी ..	NW ; 2 0	0 6 ; 378 ; 69 ; 369.	Gargoti 4-0
Bastvāḍ ; SL. ; बस्तवाड ..	N ; 5-0	1·5 ; 997, 152 ; 867.	Kurundwad 3-0
Bastavaḍe ; KG. ; बस्तवडे ..	S ; 20-0	2·3 ; 874 ; 177 ; 794	Kurli 3-0
Baṭakaṇaṅgale ; GGJ. ; बटकणंगले	S ; 9-0	2·3 ; 1109 ; 211 ; 998.	Nesari 3-0
Bāveli ; BVD. ; बावेली .	SE ; 10 2	3·7 ; 132, 80 ; 425.	Gagan Bavada. 10-0
Beḍiv ; BHD. ; बेडिव ..	S, 12 0	4·3, 382 ; 03 ; 374.	Uttur 7-0
Begavaḍe ; BHD. ; बेगवडे ..	S ; 12-0	2·4 ; 646, 134 ; 631.	Uttur 6-0
Bekanāḷ ; GGJ. ; बेकनाळ ..	SE ; 3-0	1·3 ; 840 ; 137, 761.	Khadgaon 1-0
Beḷagundī ; GGJ. ; बेळगुंदी ..	W ; 3-0	1 0 ; 780, 127 ; 768.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Beḷākevāḍī ; AJ. ; बेळाकेवाडी ..	SE. 1-6	0·5 ; 350 ; 54 ; 310.	Ajra 1-4

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 40–0	Pimpalgaon Tue. 1–0	Uttur 4–0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling fr. (Mg. Vad. 14).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 34–0	Local Mon.	Sonage 1–0	rv	Sl (pr).; fair on the 1st monday after (Ct. Sud.1).; 6tl.; M.; mq. dg.; ch.
Kolhapur 24–0	Bajar Bhogaon. Wed. 6–0	Kodoli 3–0	W.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.
Kolhapur 36–0	Bambavade Thu. 2–0	14–0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur 40–0	Pimpalgaon Tue. 2–0		w.	2 Sl (2pr).; Ramlingdev fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; 3tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road 25-0	Hukkeri Wed. 1–0	Halkarni 1–0	str. w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmidevi fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; 7tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; ch.; (Village Medical Centre).
Pacchapur 22–0	Halkarni Wed 1–0		str.	tl.; There is a experimental farming centre.
Kolhapur 28–0	Gargoti Wed. 4–0	2–0	w. str.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 12–0	Kurundwad Thu. 2–0		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Ur. ir (April).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur 32–0	Nipani Thu 7–0	Sonage 1–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (c.sp).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 38–0	Mahagaon Mon. 3–0	Local.	w	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 7tl.; ch
Kolhapur 35–0	Gagan Bavada. Thu. 10–0	Bavada 10–0	rv. n.	Sl (pr); 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 42–0	Pimpalgaon Tue. 6–0	Gargoti 12–0	str.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Kedarling fr. Mg).; tl.
Kolhapur 43–0	Pimpalgaon Tue. 4–0	Uttur 8–0	w.str.(o)	Sl (pr).; Kedarling fr. (Mg).; tl.
Hukkeri Road. 29–4	Gadhinglaj Sun. 0–4	Gadhinglaj 3–0	w	Sl (pr); tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road. 33–0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 3–0	Local	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 36–0	Ajra Fri. 1–4	Ajra 1–4	rv.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Belāvale Bk. ; KG. ; बेलावले बु.	W ; 15–0	2·0 ; 1313 ; 261 ; 1071.	Valve Bk. 2–0
Belāvale Kh. ; KG. ; बेलावले खु.	W ; 15–0	1·4 ; 795 ; 163 ; 792.	Valve Bk. 4–0
Bele ; KV. ; बेले	W ; 13–0	2·1 ; 1017 ; 126 ; 989.	Kolhapur 12–0
Belevāḍī ; AG. ; बेळेवाडी	N ; 1–2	2·3 ; 935 ; 106 ; 931.	Uttur 5·0
Belevāḍī Kālamā ; KG. ; बेळेवाडी काळमा.	SW ; 26 0	2·3 ; 939 ; 195 ; 890.	Kapashi 6–0
Belevāḍī Māsā ; KG. ; बेळेवाडी मासा.	S ; 25–0	2·7 ; 1083 ; 232 ; 1082.	Kapashi 2–0
Benikre ; KG. ; बेनिक्रे	SW 22–0	4·1 ; 1006 ; 192 ; 984.	Kapashi 7–0
Bhaḍagāṅv ; KG. ; भडगांव	SW ; 27–0	1·6 ; 753 ; 136 ; 753.	Kurli 15–0
Bhaḍagāṅv ; GGJ. ; भडगांव	S ; 1–0	6·0 ; 3431 ; 642 ; 3107.	Local
Bhāḍale ; SHW. ; भाडले	E ; 10–0	0·7 ; 442 ; 88 ; 442.	Bambavade 2–0
Bhādavaṇ ; AJ. ; भादवण	NE ; 7–0	2·8 ; 1806 ; 209 ; 1787.	Uttur 6–0
Bhadavaṇavāḍī ; AJ. ; भादवण वाडी.	NE ; 7–2	2·0 ; 1288 , 237 ; 1226.	Uttur 6–0
Bhādole ; HK. ; भादोले	NW ; 12–0	5·9 ; 3810 ; 679 ; 3593.	Vadgaon Kasaba. 2–0
Bhāmaṭe ; KV. ; भामटे	W ; 9–5	1·1 ; 750 ; 132 ; 735.	Kale 3–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	16-0	Valve Bk.	Sat.	2-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.(c).; fr. (An. Vad 12).; 4tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	16-0	Valve Bk.	Sat.	4-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.(c).; 4tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	3-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (An. Sud 10).; 3tl.; mq.; ch.; lib. (mob).
Hukkeri Road.	36-0	Ajra	Fri.	6-0	Uttur	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari fr. (in the month of Magh each year).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	41-0	Kapashi	Mon.	3-0	Kapashi	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Kalamadevi fr. (Mg).; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	36-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-0		2-0	sw.	Sl (pr).; Jyotirling dev. fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	34-0	Kapashi	Mon.	7-0		2-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Vithalai devi fr. (on the 1st Tuesday in Phg. Vad); Bhaveshwari devi fr. (on the 1st Wed. in Vad. Phg).; 3tl.; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0	Murgud	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.(c).; 4tl.; mq.
Hukkeri Road.	29-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	8-0	Local		w.rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.(c).; fr. (Vsk. Vad. 30).; 10tl.; 5M.; mq.; 2gym
Kolhapur	19-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	15-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Bhairavdev fr. (on the 1st Sunday after Ct. Sud 1); tl.; 2gym.
Hukkeri Road.	36-0	Ajra	Fri.	6-4		1-2	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Laxmidevi fr. (Ps. Sud. 12).; 7tl.; 2gym.; ch.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Ajra	Fri.	8-0		1-2	rv.	Sl (3pr)., cs. (c).; 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Hatkanangale.	12-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (3pr. 2m).; pyt.; cs. (2c).; Vishali fr. (Ps. Vad. 30).; 12tl.; 4mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	11-0	Sangrul	Tue.	1-4	Kaparde	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling dev fr.; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.

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Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bhāṇḍaṇe ; RDN. ; भांडणे ..	S ; 12–0	5.0 ; 420 ; 81 ; 414.	Gargoti 22–0
Bhāṭaṇavāḍī ; KV. ; भाटणवाडी.	W ; 14–0	0.7 ; 388 ; 71 ; 384.	Kolhapur 12–0
Bhāṭivaḍe ; BHD. ; भाटिवडे ..	NW ; 3–0	1.2 ; 519 ; 82 ; 487.	Gargoti 4–0
Bheḍasagāṅv ; SHW. ; भेडसगांव.	NE ; 10–0	2.4 ; 2345 ; 441 ; 2080.	Local
Bheṅḍavaḍe ; HK. ; भेंडवडे ..	N ; 10–0	2.6 ; 1742 ; 440 ; 1406.	Vadgaon (Kasba). 4–0
Bheṇḍivaḍe ; BHD. ; भेंडिवडे ..	E ; 4–0	1.5 ; 434 ; 81 ; 433.	Gargoti 35–0
Bheṇḍivaḍe ; SHW. ; भेंडिवडे ..	NW ; 11–0	1.9 ; 314 , 60 ; 312.	Malkapur 8–0
Bhom ; BVD. ; भोम .	N ; 9–0	1.8 ; 337 ; 67 ; 223.	Kharopatan. 15–0
Bhuī Bāvaḍā ; BVD. ; भुईबावडा	W ; 5–0	6.0 ; 1505 ; 327 ; 1094.	Kharepatan. 15–0
Bhujavaḍe ; RDN. ; भुजवडे ..	SE ; 4–0	0·0 ; 337 ; 67 ; 291.	Murgud 11-0
Bhuye ; KV. ; भुये .	N ; 9–0	3.5 ; 2673 ; 517 , 2162.	Kolhapur 6–0
Bīḍ Kasabā ; KV. ; बीड कसबा ..	SW ; 9 0	8.5 ; 3121 ; 588 ; 2571.	Kolhapur 9–0
Bidrevāḍī ; GGJ. ; बिद्रेवाडी ..	S ; 10–0	2.5 ; 437 ; 88 ; 346.	Nesari 2–0
Bidrī ; BHD. ; बिद्री ..	S ; 7–0	1.1 ; 181 ; 38 ; 181.	Shengaon 3–0
Bidrī ; KG. ; बिद्री ..	W ; 21–0	3.1 ; 950 ; 176 ; 424.	Boravade 1–0
Boḷāvī ; KG. ; बोळावी ..	SW ; 29–0	3.4 ; 1354 ; 238 ; 1302.	Kapashi 4–0
Boloḷī ; KV. ; बोलोली ..	W ; 15–0	4.1 ; 1276 ; 255 ; 1194.	Kolhapur 15–0
Borabeṭ ; BVD. ; बोरबेट ..	SE. ; 6-0	6.4 ; 273 ; 57 ; 273.	Gagan Bavada. 6–0
Boragāṅv ; PN. ; बोरगांव ..	SW ; 11–0	2.0 ; 1161 ; 220 ; 1123.	Panhala Kasba. 9–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	40-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	10-0	Radhanagari.	12-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	1-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	4-0	Gargoti	3-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Local	Sat.			3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 4tl.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Hatkanangale.	9-0	Vadgaon (Kasaba).	Mon.	4-0		3-0	rv.	2Sl (2pr).; 2cs. (2c); Pir Ur.; 3tl.; 2mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Gargoti	Wed.	5-0	Gargoti	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	37-0	Malkapur	Fri.	8-0	Nile	6-0	rv. str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	43-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	7-0	Bavada	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	39-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	5-0	Bavada	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur	30-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	3-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	8-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0			w.	2Sl (2pr).; 3cs.; Marutidev fr. (Vsk. Sud 9).; 10tl.; mq.; 3gym.; 2lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	10-0	Sangrul	Thu.	3-0		3-0	rv. w.	3Sl (3pr).; 3cs.; fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; 12tl.; mq.; 6gym.; 2dp.; Mahadev Temple is famous.
Belgaum	20-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0		1-2	w.str.	Sl (pr.); 3tl.
Kolhapur	37-0	Shengaon	Thu.	3-0	Gargoti	7-0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Valve Bk.	Sat.	4-0		0-8	rv.	Sl (pr). cs.; fr. (An. Sud 9).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	48-0	Kapashi	Mon.	4-0		5-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; Bhairav dev fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	*15-0*	*Sangrul*	*Thu.*	*0-0*	*Koparde*	*7-0*	*n.spr.*	*Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; M.*
Kolhapur	34-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	0-0	Bavada	6-0	r.	Morjai devi fair (Mg. Sud 7)., tl.; Morjaidevi caves are famous in the Bavada Taluka.
Kolhapur	19-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	1-0	Bhogaon	0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (after every 3 years).; 2tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.

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Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Borapāḍale ; PN. ; बोरपाळे ..	N ; 3-0	3·0 ; 1321 ; 252 ; 1063.	Kodoli Kasaba. 5-0
Boravaḍe ; KG. ; बोरवडे .	W ; 29-0	4·2 ; 2584 ; 533 ; 2443.	Local
Borivaḍe ; PN. ; बोरिवडे ..	NW ; 7-0	3·6 ; 2357 ; 430 ; 2342.	Bambavade 4-0
Bugadī Kaṭṭī ; GGJ. ; बुगडी कट्टी ..	S ; 24-0	2·2 ; 1532 ; 275 ; 1222.	Halkarni 4-0
Buraṁbāḷī ; RDN. ; बुरंबाळी ..	N ; 7-0	2·9 ; 547 ; 110 ; 540.	Kolhapur 26-0
Burebāḷ ; SHW. ; बुरेबाळ ..	SW ; 13-0	4·5 ; 431 ; 87 ; 430.	Malkapur 12-0
Burūḍe ; AJ. ; बुरुडे ..	S ; 1-0	1·1 ; 308 ; 59 ; 302.	Ajra 2-0
Caphoḍe ; AJ. ; चाफोडे ..	S ; 6-0	2·0 ; 448 ; 85 ; 410.	Ajra 5-0
Caphoḍī T. Aināghol ; RDN. ; चाफोडी तर्फ ऐनघोळ.	S ; 14-0	3·5 ; 313 ; 63 ; 285.	Gargoti 9-0
Caphoḍī T. Arāḷe ; KV. ; चाफोडी तर्फ अराळे.	W ; 21-0	0·9 ; 598 ; 126 ; 585.	Karvir 17-0
Caphoḍī T. Tarāḷe ; RDN. ; चाफोडी तर्फ तराळे.	N ; 15-0	0·5 ; 345 ; 73 , 345.	Kolhapur 16-0
Cāḷaṇavāḍī ; SHW. ; चाळणवाडी.	NW ; 13-4	0·9 , 134 ; 27 ; 133.	Amba 2-0
Canavāḍ ; SHW. ; चनवाड ..	HQ ;	0·5 ; 446 ; 89 ; 166.	Shahu-wadi. 4-0
Candanakūḍ ; GGJ. ; चदनकूड ..	E ; 10-0	1·1 ; 258 ; 34 ; 230.	Halkarni 1-0
Cāṇde ; RDN. ; चांदे .	N ; 16-0	3·0 ; 617 ; 113 ; 591.	Kolhapur 20-0
Cāndel ; SHW. ; चांदेल ..	NW ; 30-0	9·0 ; 325 ; 75 ; 324.	Arale 4-0
Cāndevāḍī ; AJ. ; चांदेवाडी ..	E ; 2-0	0·5 ; 205 ; 29 ; 167.	Ajra 2-0
Cāndolī ; SHW. ; चांदोली ..	NW ; 0-0	1·8 ; 261 ; 60 ; 226.	Amba 4-0
Candre ; RDN. ; चंद्रे ..	NE ; 14-0	1·7 ; 1262 ; 227 ; 1241.	Murgud 12-0
Candūr ; HK. ; चंदूर ..	SW ; 7-0	3·4 ; 3069 ; 548 ; 2865.	Local
Cannekuppī ; GGJ. ; चन्नेकुप्पी ..	SE ; 3-4	2·2 : 1532 ; 275 ; 1253.	Gadhinglaj 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	12–0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sat.	3–0		0–4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Chandratai fr. (on 14th January every year).; 2tl.; mq.; gym.
Kolhapur	24–0	Murgud	Tue.	4–0		1–0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Jyotirling-dev fr. (An. Ct.); 7tl.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	18–0	Bambavade	Sun.	4–0		1–4	spr.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; fr. (Ct. Sud 6).; 8tl.; mq.; 2gym.
Pacchapur	14–0	Halkarni	Wed.	4–0	Halvikatti	3–0	v.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmi fr. (on any day once a year in summer).; 4tl.
Kolhapur	26–0	Dhamod	Sat.	2–0	Amjai Varvade.	4–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	32–0	Malkapur	Fri.	12–0		12–0	str.	2tl.
Hukkeri Road.	44–0	Ajra	Fri.	2–0	Ajra	1–0	w.	tl
Hukkeri Road.	40–0	Ajra	Fri.	5–0		6–0	r.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	40–0	Kadgaon		0–0	Kadgaon	0–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 6tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	17–0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	3–0			spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	16–0	Ghotawade	Mon.	3–0		1–4	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	44–0	Malkapur	Fri.	12–0		1–4	str.	
Kolhapur	29–0	Malkapur	Fri.	1–4	Local		w.	2Sl (pr & m).; cs. (fmg);. 2tl.; gym., lib.
Pacchapur	20–0	Halkarni	Wed.	1–0		1–0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	20–0	Dhamod	Sat.	3–0	Ghotawade	6–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.
Kolhapur	58–0	Arale	Sat.	4–0		12–0	str.	2tl.
Hukkeri Road.	40–0	Ajra	Fri.	2–0		2–0	rv.	ch.
Kolhapur	36–0	Malkapur	Fri.	7–0		0–1	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	14–0	Thikapurli	Wed.	2–0		1–0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; 3gym.; ch.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	7–0	Ichalkaranji	Fri.	2–0		3–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; 8tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	26–0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3–0	Gadhinglaj	3–0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 6 tl.; M.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Carañ (Mouje) ; SHW. ; चरण (मौजे) ..	E ; 0–0	3·0 ; 1462 ; 279 ; 1271.	Bambavade 2–0
Cāvare ; HK. ; चावरे ..	NW ; 16–0	2·4 ; 1489 ; 323 ; 1302.	Paragaon 1–4
Cimagāṅv ; KG. ; चिमगांव ..	SW ; 26–0	3·7 ; 1602 ; 323 ; 1407.	Murgud 1–0
Cikhalī ; KG. ; चिखली ..	S ; 9–0	3·9 ; 2501 ; 471 ; 1456.	Local
Cikhalī ; KV. ; चिखली ..	W ; 3–0	2·4 ; 1955 ; 334 ; 1294.	Kolhapur 3–0
Cikkevāḍī ; BHD. ; चिक्केवाडी ..	W ; 31–0	2·8 ; 48 ; 8 ; 48.	Shengaon 31–0
Cimaṇē ; AJ. ; चिमणें ..	SW ; 8–0	3·0 ; 1750 ; 332 ; 1671.	Uttur 4–0
Ciñcavāḍ ; KV. ; चिंचवाड ..	E ; 8–0	1·0 ; 1432 ; 281 ; 1219.	Walivade 2–0
Ciñcavāḍ ; SL. ; चिंचवाड ..	S ; 4–0	1·5 ; 1382 ; 258 ; 1266.	Udagaon 2–4
Ciñcavaḍe T. Kāle ; KV. ; चिंचवडे तर्फे क ळे.	W ; 10–4	1·2 ; 663 ; 110 ; 652.	Panhala 12–0
Ciñcevāḍī ; GGJ. ; चिंचेवाडी ..	S ; 6–0	2·8 ; 826 ; 149 ; 784.	Halkarni 4–0
Ciparī ; SL. ; चिपरी ..	NE ; 8–0	3·4 ; 2661 ; 486 ; 2436.	Local
Ciṭāle ; AJ. ; चिटाळे ..	S ; 7–0	3·0 ; 560 ; 106 ; 560.	Ajra 6–0
Civāle ; BHD. ; चिवाळे ..	SW ; 17–0	4·7 ; 42 ; 6 ; 42.	Shengaon 16–0
Cokāk ; HK. ; चोकाक ..	E ; 5–0	1·6 ; 1233 ; 226 ; 1166.	Rukadi 1–0
Coṇḍāḷ ; KG. ; चोंडाळ ..	SW ; 14–0	1·0 ; 301 ; 55 ; 301.	Kurli 9–0
Cuṅgūr (Mouje) ; SHW. ; चुंगूर (मौजे)	S ; 9–0	3·0 ; 571 ; 160 ; 570.	Bhogaon 4–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	22-0	Sarud	Tue.	2-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	16-0	Paragaon	Tue.	1-4		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2mis).; Chavarabai fr. (Phg. Vad 12).; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	37-0	Murgud	Tue.	1-0	Murgud	1-0	w.rv.	Sl (pr).; Chimai devi fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	25-0	Local	Mon.	....	Khadkewada.	2-0	rv. t.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 8tl.; 2M.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	4-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	3-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; fr. (Mg).; 8tl.; mq.; 5gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	65-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	16-0	Pargaon	6-0	w.	2tl.; Famous for the old fort of Rangana.
Hukkeri Road.	36-0	Uttur	Sat.	4-0	Uttur	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Gandhinagar.	3-0	Rukadi	Thu.	2-0	Gandhinagar.	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3cs. (mis). Raje Bhaskar Ur. (Mg. Sud. 2).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.
Jaysingpur	3-4	Jaysingpur	Sun.	3-4		3-0	rv	Sl (pr).; Vagjai devi fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; 5tl.
Kolhapur	13-0	Kale	Sat.	2-0		2-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis.); tl.; 2gym.; ch.; lib. (mob).
Malkapur	20-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	6-0	Gadhinglaj	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhimsasgiri fr. (Phg. Sud. 1).; 2tl.; M.; dh.; Samangad Fort.
Jaysingpur	2-4	Jaysingpur	Sun.	2-4		0-2	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 12tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	50-0	Ajra	Fri.	6-0		6-0	c.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	40-0	Kadgaon	Fri	10-0	Dasewadi	4-4	w.	2tl.
Rukadi	1-0	Rukadi	Thu.	1-0		0-1	w. t.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Jakubai devi fr. (Vak. Sud 8).; 7tl.; mq.; dh.; 2gym. ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	28-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	4-0		6-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Maruti dev fr. (Sunday after Ct. Sud. 15).; 3tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Cuye ; KV. ; चुये ..	S ; 14–0	1·7 ; 1100 ; 190 ; 917.	Kolhapur 14–0
Dabhil ; AJ. ; दाभीळ ..	W ; 8–0	3·7 ; 492 ; 89 ; 471.	Ajra 7–0
Dānavāḍ ; SL. ; दानवाड ..	S ; 12–0	4·5 ; 2411 ; 427 ; 2274.	Dattawad 2–0
Daṇevāḍī ; PN. ; दाणेवाडी ..	E ; 4–0	0·7 ; 104 ; 34 ; 104.	Kodoli Kasaba. 8–0
Dānolī ; SL. ; दानोली ..	NW ; 12–0	10·5 ; 447[illegible] ; 795 ; 4049.	Local
Dāravāḍ ; BHD. ; दारवाड ..	N ; 3–0	1·1 ; 800 ; 160 ; 729.	Gargoti 3–0
Darḍevāḍī ; AJ. ; दर्डेवाडी ..	W ; 6–2	1·2 ; 124 ; 26 ; 118.	Ajra 6–0
Dattavāḍ ; SL. ; दत्तवाड ..	S ; 13–0	6·2 ; 3743 ; 638 ; 3218.	Local
Daulatavāḍī ; KG. ; दौलतवाडी ..	S ; 28·0	0·6 ; 567 ; 110 ; 544.	Kurli 16–0
Dele ; BHD. ; देळे ..	SW ; 15–0	0·5 ; 382 ; 79 ; 368.	Shengaon 15–0
Devaṭhāṇẽ ; PN. ; देवठाणें ..	S ; 4–0	0·7 , 413 ; 93 , 370.	Panhala Kasaba. 4–0
Devakāṇḍagāṅv ; AJ. ; देवकांडगांव	W ; 6–0	3·7 ; 587 ; 105 ; 574.	Ajra 6–0
Devakevāḍī ; BHD. ; देवकेवाडी ..	W ; 5–0	0·8 ; 156 ; 30 ; 156.	Gargoti 1–0
Devarḍe ; AJ. ; देवर्डे ..	W ; 4–0	2·7 ; 725 ; 140 ; 693.	Ajra 4–0
Devarḍe ; BHD. ; देवर्डे ..	S ; 14–0	2·2 ; 370 ; 63 ; 368.	Shengaon 9–0
Devāḷe ; KV. ; देवाळे ..	S ; 8–0	1·4 ; 777 ; 132 ; 718.	Kolhapur 8–0
Devāle ; PN. ; देवाळे ..	N ; 3–0	2·0 ; 1833 ; 405 ; 1544.	Panhala Kasaba. 4–0
Dhākāle ; SHW. ; धाकाळे ..	NW ; 21–0	5·8 ; 321 ; 69 ; 313.	Malkapur 26–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 14–0	Ispurli Fri. 4–0	....	rv.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; Mhasoba fr. (Phg.); 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Hukkeri Road. 51–0	Ajra Fri. 7–0	2–0	str.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 2tl.
Jaysingpur 18–0	Dattawad Wed. 2–0	Dharwad 2–0	w. rv.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; 7tl.; M.; 2mq.; 2gym; ch.
Kolhapur 12–0	Panhala Kasaba. Sat. 6 0	2–0	w.	gym.
Jaysingpur 5–0	Jaysingpur Sun. 5–0		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Hajrat Ur. (Bhd. Vad. 8).; 8tl.; mq., dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur 30–0	Gargoti Wed. 3–0	Gargoti 3–0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c); 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 45–0	Ajra Fri. 6–0	0–2	cl.	Sl (pr).
Jaysingpur 18–0	Local Wed.	Local	rv.	2Sl (pr.; m).; pyt.; 2cs. (2c).; Shri Khandoba fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 9tl.; mq.; 2dg., 2dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 38–0	Murgud Tue. 2–0	Murgud 2–0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Mahi fr. (Mg. Sud 5).; 5tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur 48–0	Kadgaon Fri. 0–0	Desewadi 4–0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur 14–0	Panhala Kasaba. Sun. 4–0	0–4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 50–0	Ajra Fri. 6–0	3–0	rv. str.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 6tl.
Kolhapur 34–0	Shengaon Thu. 2–0	Gargoti 5 0	o.	tl.
Hukkeri Road. 48–0	Ajra Fri 4–0	3–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Vad 1).; 5tl.
Kolhapur 44–0	Kadgaon Fri. 3 0	Kadgaon 4–0	str. br.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 9–0	Kandgaon Thu. 0–4	Local	br. rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 15–0	Panhala Kasaba. Sun. 4–0	0–2	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; 2tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 54–0	Arale Sat. 7–0	Nile 18–0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Dhāmaṇavāḍī ; RDN. ; धामणवाडी	SE ; 8-2	2·0 ; 411 ; 90 ; 391.	Gargoti 14-0
Dhāmaṇē ; AJ. ; धामणें ..	NE ; 13-0	3·4 ; 1290 ; 200 ; 1164.	Uttur 3-0
Dhāmoḍ ; RDN. ; धामोड ..	N ; 12-0	5·1 ; 1434 ; 269 ; 911.	Kolhapur 26-0
Dhanagaravāḍī ; SHW. ; धनगर-वाडी.	NW ; 0-0	2·4 ; 146 ; 33 ; 67.	Malkapur 7-0
Dharaṇaguttī ; SL. ; धरणगुत्ती ..	W ; 3-0	3·4 ; 1090 ; 189 ; 977.	Nandani 1-0
Dhundavaḍe ; BVD. ; धुंदवडे ..	E ; 17-0	4·7 ; 613 ; 140 ; 608.	Gagan Bavada. 12-0
Digas (included in Phejiwade) .. RDN. ; डिगस (फेजीवडे) .	W ; 12-0	.. 245 ; 52 ; 238.	Murgud 35-0
Digavaḍe ; PN. ; दिगवडे ..	S ; 5-0	0·9 550 ; 103 ; 510.	Panhala Kasaba. 6-0
Diṇḍanerlī ; KV. ; दिंडनेर्ली ..	S ; 11-2	6·3 ; 2272 ; 445 ; 2124.	Kolhapur 10-0
Diṇḍevāḍī ; BHD. ; दिंडेवाडी ..	S ; 7-0	2·8 ; 865 ; 159 ; 709.	Uttur 6-0
Donavaḍē ; KV. ; दोनवडे ..	W ; 5-0	1·2 ; 37 ; 9 ; 37.	Kolhapur 5-0
Donavaḍe ; BHD. ; दोनवडे ..	W ; 9-0	0·9 ; 408 ; 78 ; 309.	Gargoti 8-0
Donavaḍī ; KV. ; दोनवडी ..	W ; 21-0	1·5 ; 718 ; 131 ; 666.	Karvir 19-0
Donevāḍī ; GGJ. ; डोनेवाडी ..	S, 14-0	1·4 ; 237 ; 32, 220.	Nesari 1-0
Ḍopolī : SHW. ; डोणोळी ..	SE ; 4-0	2·1 ; 1576 ; 324 ; 1404.	Bambavade 0-4
Ḍubalevāḍī ; RDN. ; डुबळेवाडी ..	S ; 2-0	6·1 ; 250 ; 57 ; 252.	Gargoti 32-0
Duguṇavāḍī ; GGJ. ; दुगुणवाडी ..	SE ; 11-0	0·9 ; 635 ; 109 ; 550.	Nesari 5-0
Dunḍage ; GGJ. ; दुंडगे ..	E ; 2-4	2·2 ; 1648 ; 297 ; 1439.	Gadhinglaj 2-4
Durga Mānavaḍ ; RDN. ; दुर्ग-मानवड.	N ; 4-0	2·7 ; 564 ; 114 ; 562.	Murgud 12-0
Durgavāḍī ; SHW. ; दुर्गेवाडी ..	N ; 26-0	2·1 ; 1576 ; 324 ; 380.	Arale 6-0
Ejivaḍe (included in Phejiwade) RDN. ; एजीवडे (फेजीवडे).	W ; 6-0	.. 158 ; 39 ; 154.	Radhanagari. 7-0

Railway St.	Distance	Weekly Bazar	Bazar Day	Distance	Motor Stand	Distance	Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information
Kolhapur	40-0	Saravade	Fri.	3-0	Saravade	3-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; Damanadevi fr. (Ct. Sud 13).; Maruti fr. (Phg. Sud 11).; 2tl.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Uttur	Sat.	3-0	Uttur	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr.; (Mg. Vad). 3tl.; M.; mq.
Kolhapur	26-0	Local	Sat.		Local		w. rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	37-0	Malkapur	Fri.	7-0	Malkapur	7-0	str.	tl.; mq.
Jaysingpur	3-0	Nandani	Wed.	1-0			rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2c).; 4tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Local	Sun.			7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	0-0		5-0	n.	2tl.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kodoli Kasaba.	Tue.	3-0	Kale	2 4	rv. w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Kedarlingdev fr (An. Sud 10).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	11-0	Ispurli	Fri.	3-0	Hanbarwadi.	1-4	w.	2Sl (2pr).; 2cs.; 6tl.; 6gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 2dp.; Coh.
Kolhapur	36-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	2-0	Gargoti	5-0	str. (o).	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	5-0		0 1	W.	Sl (pr); fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	41-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	1-0	Local		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.
Kolhapur	10 0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	5-0			spr.	
Belgaum	25-0	Nesari	Thu.	1-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	20-0	Bambavade.	Thu.	0 4	Bambavade.	0-4	w. n.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhairav dev fr. (Phg. Vad 5).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	45-0	Kadgaon		5-0	Kadgaon	4-0	rv	4tl.
Belgaum	20-0	Duddi	Mon.	4-0		5-0	w	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road	25-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	2-4	Local		rv. str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Maruti dev fr. (Phg. Sud. 5).; 5tl.; gym.; dp.
Kolhapur	24-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	2-0		6-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Shri Vithalaidevi fr. (Phg. Vad. 12, 13).; 2tl.; Alluminium ore.
Kolhapur	57-0	Local;	Fri.	3-0	Nile	3 0	str.	3tl.
Kolhapur	37-0	Saravade	Fri.	7-0	Local		w.n.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office.; Distance.
Ekondī ; KG. ; एकोंडी ..	W ; 8-0	1·9 ; 1166 ; 230 ; 875.	Kagal 7-0
Gaḍahinglaj ; GGJ. ; गडहिंग्लज ..	HQ ;	0·9 ; 8546 ; 1519 ; 4291.	Local
Gagan Bāvaḍā ; BVD. ; गगन बावडा.	HQ ;	3·5 ; 1838 ; 300 ; 367.	Local.
Gajāpūr ; SHW. ; गजापूर .	NW ; 17-0	11·2 ; 928 ; 205 ; 676.	Amba 8-0
Gajaragāṅv ; AJ. ; गजरगांव ..	E ; 9-0	1·5 ; 1163 ; 214 ; 923.	Mahagaon 2-0
Galagale ; KG. ; गलगले ..	S ; 16-0	2·4 ; 803 ; 167 ; 748.	Kapashi 5-0
Gāndhinagar ; KV. ; गांधीनगर ..	E ; 5-0	2·3 ; 5831 ; 1725 ; 14.	Local.
Gaṇeśavāḍī ; SL. ; गणेशवाडी ..	SE ; 7-0	1·5 ; 2303 ; 408 ; 1967.	Kagwad 4-0
Gaṅgāpūr ; BHD. ; गंगापूर ..	NE ; 5-0	2·2 ; 1201 ; 213 ; 112.	Murgud 3-0
Gārgoṭī ; BHD. ; गारगोटी ..	E ; 0-1	2·9 ; 3029 ; 601 ; 2010.	Local
Garjan ; KV. ; गर्जन ..	SW ; 16-4	0·7 ; 459 ; 80 ; 446.	Kolhapur 17-0
Gārīvaḍe ; BVD. ; गारीवडे ..	SE ; 9-4	1·9 ; 354 ; 67 ; 350.	Gagan Bavada. 9-0
Gauravāḍ ; SL. ; गौरवाड ..	SW ; 4-2	1·0 ; 1011 ; 168 ; 945.	Narsinhwadi. 3-0
Gavaśī ; RDN. ; गवशी ..	N ; 18-0	2·8 ; 423 ; 83 ; 414.	Kolhapur 30-0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	10-0	Khebud	Tue.	2-0		8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Gaibi Pir Ur. (Last Thursday in Vaishakh).; 3tl.; mq.; 2dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	28-0	Local	Sun.		Local		rv. w.	5Sl (3pr, m. h).; Mun.; 3cs.; fr. (Mg. Vad 2).; 7tl.; 3mq.; 2dh.; 3gym. lib.; 6dp.
Kolhapur	34-0	Local	Thu		Local		w.	2Sl (pr, m).; cs.; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15 Mrg. Sud. 15). Ur. (Thursday in the month of February) Gagangad is a fort of historical importance 6tl.; 3mq.; dh.; lib.; dp.; (Village medical centre.)
Kolhapur	43-0	Malkapur	Fri.	13-0	Local		rv. w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; mq.
Hukkeri Road.	23-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	2-0	Mahagaon	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.
Kolhapur	27-0	Kapashi	Mon.	5-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; M.; mq.
Local.		Local.	Daily.		Local		rv.w.pl.	3Sl (3pr).; cs.; 12tl.; lib.; 5dp.
Mhaisal	3-0	Kagwad	Sun.	4-0	Kagwad	3-0	w.	Laxmidevi fr. (Vsk. first week).; Pir dev Ur.; 7tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	30-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0		2-0	rv. w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 7tl.; 3gym; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Local.	Wed.		Local		rv.	Sl (Mouni Vidyapith conducting various educational activities). pyt.; cs.; 7tl.; dg.; dh.; 6gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	17-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	3-0		4-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	34-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	9-0	Bavada	10-0	w. rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Jaysingpur	9-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	2-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; mq.; 3dg.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Dhamod	Sat.	4-0	Kale	10-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Gāvaḍ (Dumala) ; SHW. ; गावडी (दुमाला).	W ; 22–0	6·4 ; 390 ; 77 ; 385.	Malkapur 20–0
Gelavaḍe ; SHW. ; गेळवडे ..	W ; 17–0	4·7 ; 448 ; 100 ; 448.	Malkapur 13–0
Gharapaṇ ; PN. ; घरपण ..	SW ; 14–0	1·0 ; 674 ; 119 ; 656.	Kale Kasaba 1-0
Ghānavaḍe ; KV. ; घानवडे ..	SW ; 17–0	1·9 ; 815 ; 140 ; 760.	Kolhapur 10–0
Gholasavaḍe ; SHW. ; घोळसवडें.	SW ; 9–0	2·3 ; 190 ; 44 ; 190.	Malkapur 7-4
Ghālavāḍ ; SL. ; घालवाड ..	E ; 3–0	2·6 ; 1327 ; 235 ; 1187.	Shirol 3–0
Ghosaravāḍ ; SL. ; घोसरवाड ..	S ; 11–0	4·7 ; 2709 ; 520 ; 2620.	Local
Ghoṭavaḍe ; PN. ; घोटवडे ..	W ; 10–0	1·6 ; 727 ; 155 ; 648.	Panhala Kasaba. 9–0
Ghoṭavaḍe ; RDN. ; घोटवडे ..	NE ; 13–0	1·2 ; 1102 ; 226 ; 970.	Kolhapur 16–0
Ghuḍevāḍi ; RDN. ; घुडेवाडी ..	NE ; 10–0	0·4 ; 381 ; 72 ; 380.	Murgud 10–0
Ghuṇākī ; HK. ; घुणाकी ..	NW 16–0	4·6 ; 3526 ; 648 ; 2778.	Local
Ghuṅguravāḍī ; KV. ; घुंगुरवाडी.	NW ; 17–0	0·9 ; 126 ; 18 ; 125.	Kolhapur 19–0
Gijavaṇē ; GGJ. ; गिजवणें ..	W ; 1–0	2·4 ; 2165 ; 395 ; 1925.	Gadhinglaj 1–4
Giragāṅv ; BHD. ; गिरगांव ..	W ; 6–0	2·7 ; 280 ; 53 , 279.	Gargoti 5–0
Giragāṅv ; KV. ; गिरगांव ..	S ; 7–0	3·8 ; 1414 ; 297 ; 896.	Kaneri 4–0
Giragāṅv ; SHW. गिरगांव ..	W. ; 12–0	5·6 ; 264 ; 58,; 264.	Malkapur 10–0
Giroḷī ; PN. ; गिरोळी ..	E ; 6–0	1·4 ; 228 ; 41 ; 228.	Kodoli Kasaba. 3–0
Gogave ; PN. ; गोगवे ..	SW ; 17–0	0·6 ; 150 ; 27 ; 150.	Kale Kasaba. 5–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	49-0	Malkapur	Fri.	20-0		11-0	rv. w.	tl.
Kolhapur	43-0	Malkapur	Fri.	13-0		6-0	str.	2tl.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	1-0		0-2	W.	Sl (pr).; Jyotiriling dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	10-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	5-0		5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; ch.
Kolhapur	36-4	Malkapur	Fri.	7-4		1-0	rv.	tl.
Miraj	5-0	Shirol	Sat.	3-0	Shirol	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3cs. (3mis).; Hajrat Malikambar Pirdev Ur. (at the end of Srn. and 4 days after Phg. Vad 5).; 2tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; dp.
Jaysingpur	15-0	Dattawad	Wed.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (o).; Shri. Siddheshwar fr. (Mg. Sud 7).; 4tl.; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	21-0	Bazar Bhogaon.	Wed.	2-0	Bhogaon	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. Maruti dev fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; tl.; M.; gym.
Kolhapur	16-0	Local	Mon.		Local		rv.	cs.; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Tarale	Thu.	1-4	Khi Varvade.	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Karvir	16-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	4-0	Local		w.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt., 2cs. (ck 2c).; fr. (Mg. Vad 30).; 5tl.; 2mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Kolhapur	19-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	3-0		5-0	rv.	ch.
Hukkeri Road.	30-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	1-4		1-0	w. rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Kedarling dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 6tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Shengaon	Thu.	2-0	Gargoti	6-0	w.	2tl.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	7-0		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; mq.; 4gym., ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Malkapur	Fri.	10-0		11-0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Koduli Kasaba.	Sun.	6-0		1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	21-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	5-0		17-0	rv.	tl.; gym.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Gogave ; SHW. ; गोगवे ..	SE ; 6–0	3·7 ; 1241 ; 225 ; 1207.	Bambavade 2–0
Gokulasiregāṅv ; KV. गोकुळ शिरेगांव.	SW ; 6–0	3·0 ; 941 ; 138 ; 784.	Karvir 2–0
Golivade ; PN. ; गोलिवडे ..	SW ; 2–4	1·0 ; 380 ; 76 ; 345.	Panhala Kasaba. 4–0
Golivaṇē ; SHW. ; गोलिवणें ..	NW ; 12–0	5·2 ; 200 ; 45 ; 192.	Malkapur 9–0
Goṅḍoli ; SHW. ; गोंडोली ..	NE ; 10–0	0·9 ; 405 ; 77 ; 378.	Kokrud 3–0
Goraṁbe ; KG. ; गोरंबे ..	SW ; 9–0	2·9 ; 1294 ; 274 ; 1129.	Kurli 7–0
Goṭhaṇē ; PN. ; गोठणे ..	W ; 15–0	3·9 ; 62 ; 18 ; 50.	Panhala Kasaba. 22–0
Goṭhe ; PN. ; गोठे .	SW ; 9–4	0·5 ; 262 ; 55 ; 262.	Kale Kasaba 5–0
Gouse ; AJ. ; गौसे ..	W ; 7–0	4·5 ; 533 ; 122 ; 481.	Ajra 7–0
Guḍāl ; RDN. ; गुडाळ ..	S ; 6–0	2·1 ; 1355 ; 232 ; 1284.	Murgud 18–6
Guḍalakop ; GGJ. ; गुडलकोप .	S ; 24–0	1·6, .. - Deserted.	— --
Guḍe ; PN. ; गुडे ..	SW ; 1–0	0·1 ; 137 ; 34 ; 123.	Panhala Kasaba. 1–0
Hāḍalage ; GGJ. ; हाडलगे ..	S ; 16–0	4·2 ; 1208 ; 198 ; 1156.	Nesari 2–0
Hājagoḷī (Bk.) ; AJ. ; हाजगोळी ..	NE ; 5–0	1·0 ; 424 ; 75 ; 423.	Ajra 4–0
Hājagoḷī (Kh.) ; AJ. ; हाजगोळी ..	E ; 3–0	0·9 ; 225 ; 52 ; 225.	Ajra 4–0
Haladawaḍe ; KG. ; हळदवडे .	SW ; 25–0	0·6 ; 374 ; 87 ; 335.	Kapashi 4–0
Haladī ; KG. ; हळदी .	SW ; 24–0	3·8 ; 1341 ; 186 ; 1296.	Kapashi 4–0
Haladī (Dumālā) ; KV. ; हळदी दुमाला.	SW ; 9–0	1·9 ; 1113 ; 216 ; 878.	Karvir 9–4

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	23-0	Bambavade	Thu.	2-0		2-0	w., str.	Sl (pr).; Maruti dev fr. (Ct. Sud 9).; 4tl.; mq.; 3gym.
Kolhapur	6-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	7-0	Local	—	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Shri Kribnath fr. (Ct. Vad 30); 4tl.; 2gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	14-0	Kotoli	Thu.	2-0	Kotoli	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	38-0	Malkapur	Fri.	9-0	Nile	6-0	rv., w.	tl.
Karad	24-0	Kokrud	Wed.	8-0	Kokrud	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	21-0	Local.	—	—	Sonage	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mp).; Bhaveshwari fr. (Mg. Sud. 15) 5tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	29-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	10-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	10-0	br.	tl.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sun.	5-0	Kale	2-4	rv.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	51-0	Ajra	Fri.	7-0	Local.		str.	Sl (pr).; Marjai fr. (annual; day not fixed.) 4tl.; dp.
Kolhapur	21-0	Kasaba Tarale.	1-4	1-4	Vharavade Khindicho.		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
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Kolhapur	11-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	1-0	Panhala	1-0	w., spr.	tl.
Belgaum	21-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	—	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 4tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	38-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0	—	1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Hukkeri Road.	39-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0	—	3-0	rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	35-0	Murgud	Tue.	4-0	—	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari devi; fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 2tl. gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Murgud	Tue.	4-0	—	4-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Gramdevi fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	11-0	Kandgaon	Thu.	2-0	Local	—	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; mob.; lib.; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Halakarṇī ; GGJ. ; हलकर्णी ..	SE ; 10–0	2·5 ; 3793 ; 718 ; 2410.	Local.
Halasavaḍē ; KV. ; हलसवडे ..	SE ; 11–0	3·4 ; 783 ; 153 ; 774.	Kagal 3–0
Hālevāḍī ; AJ. ; हालेवाडी ..	N ; 8–0	0·6 ; 740 ; 133 ; 649.	Uttur 3–0
Hāloḷī ; AJ. ; हाळोळी ..	W ; 4–4	1·8 ; 254 ; 40 ; 251.	Ajra 4–0
Hāloṇḍī ; HK. ; हालोंडी ..	W ; 8–0	1·5 ; 1236 ; 252 ; 1162.	Herle 1–0
Hamīdavāḍā ; KG. ; हमीदवाडा ..	SW ; 16–0	4·0 ; 1992 ; 380 ; 1610.	Kapashi 4–0
Haṇamantē ; BHG. ; हणमंते ..	W ; 26–0	3·2 ; 233 ; 44 ; 221.	Shengaon 24–0
Handevāḍī ; AJ. ; हांदेवाडी ..	NE ; 11–0	1·9 ; 220 ; 41 ; 216.	Nesari 2–0
Hanīmahaḷ ; GGJ. ; हनीमहळ ..	N ; 4–0	2·5 ; 1353 ; 228 ; 1168.	Gadhinglaj 4–0
Haraḷī (Bk.) ; GGJ. ; हरळी (बु.) ..	S ; 4–0	1·7 ; 1030 ; 183 ; 968.	Mahagaon 1–0
Haraḷī (Kh.) ; GGJ. ; हरळी (खु.) .	SW ; 5–0	1·3 ; 1365 ; 263 ; 971.	Mahagaon 1–0
Harapavaḍē ; AJ. ; हरपवडे ..	W ; 5–0	1·2 ; 294 ; 55 ; 289.	Ajra 5–0
Harapavaḍe ; PN. ; हरपवडे ..	SW ; 18–0	2·3 ; 591 ; 111 ; 578.	Kale Kasuba 9–0
Haroḷī ; SL. ; हरोळी ..	W ; 5–0	1·7 ; 1256 ; 216 ; 1202.	Nandani 1–0
Hārūr ; AJ. ; हारूर ..	E ; 9–0	1·2 ; 284 ; 55 ; 248.	Mahagaon 9–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Pachhapur	21-0	Local.	Wed.		Local.	—	w., str.	3Sl (3pr).; 4cs. (fmg. Con. 2mis).; Shri Ramlingdev fr. (Ct).; 11tl.; 2M;. mq.; 2dg.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; 4dp.
Rukadi	5-0	Kagal	Mon. Thu.	3-0	—	2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Masoba dev fr. (in Ct Sud. 15).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Uttur	Sat.	3-0	—	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bahiri dev fr. (once in a year).; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0	--	3-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Fair (in February) tl.; ch.
Rukadi	4-0	Herle	Sat.	1-4	Local	0-1	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis.) fr. (Bdp. Vad. 14).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	32-0	Kapashi	Mon.	4-0	—	0-6	w.	3 Sl (3pr).; 3cs.; Marjaidevi; fr. (Ct. Sud. 7).; 6tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.; Chhatri of Parshurambhau Patwardhan.
Kolhapur	58-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	16-0	—	5-0	w.	2tl.; mq.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	--	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	25-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-0	Gadhinglaj	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Maruti dev fr. (March).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	34-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	1-0	Local	—	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmi fr. (Mg. Sud. 15 after every three years) Bhairav fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	34-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	1-0	—	1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav dev fr. (Mg).; 6tl.; 2gym.; ch., dp.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri.	5-0	Ajra	5-0	str.	Rasubai Marjai devi fr. (in February).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	21-0	Kale Kamba.	Sat.	9-0	Kale	8-0	rv., spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.; mq.; ch.
Jaisingpur	3-4	Nandani	Wed.	1-0	—	—	w.	2Sl (2pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; 2mg. dg.; dh.
Hukkeri Road.	23-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	2-0	Mahagaon	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.

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Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Hasūr ; SL. ; हसूर ..	E ; 6–0	1·6 ; 1099 ; 186 ; 1009.	Shirol 6–0
Hasūr Bk. ; KG. ; हसूर (बु॥.) ..	SW ; 28–0	2·2 ; 678 ; 173 ; 785.	Kapashi 5–0
Hasūr (Dumālā) ; KV. ; हसूर दुमाला.	W ; 14–0	2·2 ; 1443 ; 278 ; 1324.	Rashiwade 2–0
Hasūr Kh. ; KG. ; हसूर (खुर्द) ..	SW ; 28–0	2·5 ; 1217 ; 230 ; 1114.	Kapashi 4–0
Hasūr Campu ; GGJ. ; हसूर चंपू ..	E ; 4–0	3·3 ; 2250 ; 411 ; 1788.	Local. —
Hasūr Samsagiri ; GGJ. ; हसूर सासगिरी.	S ; 7–0	2·8 ; 1496 ; 295 ; 1358.	Halkarni 6–0
Hātakaṇaṅgale ; HK. ; हातकणंगले.	SE ; 4–0	6·5 ; 3914 ; 838 ; 2766.	Local. —
Hatīvaḍe ; AJ ; हतीवडे ..	E ; 1–6	1·2 ; 574 ; 104 ; 558.	Ajra 2–0
Hebbāl ; GGJ. ; हेब्बाळ ..	E ; 4–0	2·5 ; 1903 ; 326 ; 1793.	Gadhinglaj 4–4
Hebbāl (Jaladyāl) ; GGJ. ; हेब्बाळ (जलद्याल).	S ; 11–6	1·8 ; 1101 ; 203 ; 1039.	Nesari 4–4
Hedavaḍe ; BHD. ; हेदवडे .	W ; 6–0	2·4 ; 824 ; 160 ; 761.	Gargoti 5–0
Helevāḍī ; BHD. ; हेळेवाडी ..	E ; 4–0	0·6 ; 298 ; 64 ; 298.	Uttur 6–0
Helevāḍī ; GGJ. ; हेळेवाडी .	S ; 11–0	0·4 ; 148 ; 24 ; 113.	Nesari 3–6
Helevāḍī ; RDN. ; हेळेवाडी ..	SE ; 5–0	0·4 ; 201 ; 37 ; 201.	Murgud 11–0
Herale ; HK. ; हेरळे ..	W ; 7–0	6·3 ; 4562 ; 878 ; 3736.	Local. —

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Shedbal	4-0	Shirol	Sat.	6-0	Shirol	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Laxmi fr. (after Ct. Sud. 1).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	50-0	Kapashi	Mon.	5-0	—	5-0	pl.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmidevi fr. (Mg. Vad. 7).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Rashiwade	Tue.	2-0	—	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 6tl.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-4	Hebbal	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (c., sp).; fr. (Phg. Sud 15).; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	3-0	—	3-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Local	—	Local.	Tue.	—	Local.	—	spr., W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2 mis).; Hajrat Pir Ur. (Bdp. Sud. 11).; 9tl.; mq.; dg.; 3dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Hukkeri Road.	44-0	Ajra	Fri.	2-0	Ajra	1-4	rv.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-4	Local.	—	w., rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; 4tl.; 2M.; mq.; dh.; 4gym.; ch.
Belgaum	21-0	Daddi	Mon.	4-0	Hatakanangale.	2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; ch.; lib.; (Village medical-centre.)
Kolhapur	35-0	Shengaon	Thu.	3-0	Gargoti	6-0	str.	2Sl (2pr).; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 9tl.
Kolhapur	36-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	2-0	Gargoti	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	21-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	—	0-4	w.	2tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	4-0	—	1-4	str.	
Sulkudi	3-0	Local	Sat.	—	Local	1-6	t., w.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; 3cs. (3c).; Jain basti fr. (Bdp. Sud. 15).; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 14tl.; 2mq.; 2dg.; gym.; ch.; 3 lib.; 2dp.; Cch.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Heravāḍ; SL.; हेरवाड ..	SW; 8-0	4·8; 2349; 503; 2097.	Kurundwad 2-4
Het; BVD.; हेत ..	SW; 9-0	3·3; 724; 140; 669.	Kharepatan 14-0
Hiḍaduggī; GGJ.; हिडदुगी ..	S; 8-0	2·1; 928; 196; 883.	Halkarni 5-0
Hiṅgaṅgāñv; HK.; हिंगणगांव ..	N; 7-0	1·5; 889; 171; 823.	Kumbhoj 2-0
Hiralage; GGJ.; हिरलगे ..	SW; 7-0	2·3; 1236; 226; 1089.	Gadginglaj 7-0
Hiravaḍe (Dumālā); KV.; हिरवडे (दुमाला)	SW; 9-0	0·8; 410; 75; ..	Kolhapur 13-0
Hiravaḍe (Khālasa); KV.; हिरवडे (खालसा)	W; 13-0	1·2; 785; 134; 769.	Karvir 13-0
Hiṭaṇī; GGJ.; हिटणी ..	NE; 9-0	2·3; 1827; 356; 1760.	Sankeshwar 3-4
Honevāḍī; AJ.; होनेवाडी ..	SE; 3-0	2·0; 376; 69; 361.	Ajra 3-0
Honyāḷī; AJ.; होन्याळी ..	N; 8-0	2·2; 1226; 239; 1194.	Uttur 3-0
Huṁbavalī; SHW.; हुंबवली ..	SW; 9-0	1·7; 69; 19; 69.	Malkapur 9-0
Hunaginahāḷ; GGJ.; हुनगिनहाळ	S; 2-4	1·3; 485; 90; 458	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Hupari; HK.; हुपरी ..	S; 9-0	6·6; 7089; 1262; 4492.	Local.

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Jaisingpur	12-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	2-4	Local	—	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmi Santubai fr. (An. Vad 30).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0	Bavada	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Hukkeri Road.	30-0	Halkarni	Wed.	5-0		4-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Vithoba fr. (Ct. Sud. 12).; 6tl.; M.; ch.
Hatkanangale.	7-0	Kumbhoj	Sun.	2-0	Kumbhoj	2-0	W., rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (Life irrigation Society).; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud. 15) and Mahavir Jayanti fr. (in Ct).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	38-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3-0	--	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Manjai devi fr. (Mg).; 8tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-0	Haladi	4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (An. Sud. 10).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	16-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	1-4	—	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.
Hukkeri Road.	27-0	Sankeshwar	Fri.	3-4	—	1-4	rv.	2Sl (2pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 7).; 3tl.; 2M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	44-0	Ajra	Fri.	3-0	Ajra	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Uttur	Sat.	3-0	Uttur	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (o).; Laxmidevi fr. (in any year fixed by the people).; 3tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	38-0	Malkapur	Fri.	9-0	—	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	32-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3-0	Gadhinglaj	2-4	w.	Sl (3pr).; Bhairi dev 5 fr. (Mg. Vad 5).; 3tl.; gym.
Hatkanangale.	2-0	Local.	Sat.	—	Local	—	w., pl.	3Sl (3pr, 2m).; pyt.; 5cs. (c, 4 mis). ;fr. (Mg. Vad. 8).; 8tl.; mq.; [illegible]; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; [illegible]; Famous for Ambabai Temple and Fort.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Icalakarañjī ; HK. ; इचलकरंजी ..	S ; 5-0	8·7 ; 27423 ; 5503 ; 6590.	Local.
Idaragucci ; GGJ. ; इदरगुच्ची ..	E ; 10-0	1·4 ; 588 ; 120 ; 572.	Halkarni 3-0
Iñcnāl ; GGJ. ; इंचनाळ ..	SW 5-0	1·6 ; 1657 ; 304 ; 1304.	Gadhinglaj 4-4
Iṅgalī ; HK. ; इंगळी ..	SE ; 9-0	3·1 ; 2362 ; 309 ; 2339.	Hupari 3-0
Iñjāle ; PN. ; इंजाळे ..	W ; 2-0	2·2 ; 332 ; 62 ; 311.	Panhala 1-4
Iñjolī ; SHW. ; इंजोळी ..	S ; 17-0	4·6 ; 207 ; 46 ; 207.	Bhogaon 9-0
Ispūrlī ; KV. ; इस्पूर्ली ..	S ; 11-2	3·1 ; 855 ; 168 ; 807.	Kolhapur 11-0
Jaināpūr ; SL. ; जैनापूर ..	NW ; 7-0	2·7 ; 903 ; 173 ; 688.	Chipari 1-0
Jainyāl ; KG. ; जैन्याळ ..	S ; 10-0	1·0 ; 712 ; 137 ; 678.	Kapashi 2-4
Jaitāl ; KV. ; जैताळ ..	SE ; 8-0	1·0 ; 307 ; 43 ; 307.	Kolhapur 9-0
Jākhale ; PN. ; जाखले ..	E ; 8-4	4·0 ; 1284 ; 245 ; 1249.	Kodoli 3-0
Jakhevāḍī ; GGJ. जखेवाडी ..	W ; 4-0	0·8 ; 585 ; 106 ; 570.	Kadagaon 1-4
Jāmbhalī ; SL. ; जांभळी ..	W ; 5-0	2·4 ; 1712 ; 234 ; 1622.	Ichalka-ranji. 6-6
Jāmbhavaḍe ; BVD. ; जांभवडे ..	NE ; 16-0	7·1 ; 535 ; 106 ; 501.	Khotopiatan 16-0
Jāmbulavāḍī ; GGJ. ; जांबुळवाडी	S.E. 12-0	1·1 ; 712 ; 120 ; 660.	Nesari 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hatkanangale.	6-0	Local.	Fri.	—	Local.		rv.	15Sl (13pr, 2h).; 14 cs.; 33tl.; M.; 3mq.; 2dg.; 3dh.; 7gym.; ch.; 3 lib.; 13 dp.; Famous for Sarees.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Halkarni	Wed.	3-0	Hebbal	3-0	str.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; Maruti dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 5tl.
Hukkeri Road.	34-4	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-4	—	1-2	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3cs. (mis, c, lif).; 3tl.; 2gym.; ch., lib.
Kolhapur	11-0	Hupari	Sat.	3-0	—	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (mis).; 4tl.; 2mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	14-0	Panhala	Sun.	1-4	Panhala	2-0	spr.	tl.
Kolhapur	32-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	9-0	—	8-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Local	Fri.		Local.		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Maruti dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib. (mob).; 2dp.; ancient tank.
Jaisingpur	3-0	Jaisingpur	Sun.	3-0	—	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2c).; Pir deo Urus (Ct. Sud 11).; 4tl.; mq.; 2dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-4	—	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kalmadevi fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	9-0	Kandgaon	Thu.	0-4	—	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	14-0	Kodoli	Thu.	3-0	Kodoli	2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (fmg, c).; fr. (Kt. Sud 13).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	22-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-0	—	3-8	w.	Sl (pr).; Marjaidevi fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaisingpur	5-0	Ichalkaranji	Fri.	4-0	—	2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (c, mis).; 4tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	51-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	15-0	Bavada	16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	21-0	Daddi	Mon.	5-0	—	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Jāmbūr ; SHW. ; जांबूर ..	N ; 11-0	3·2 ; 553 ; 117 ; 553.	Charan 2-4
Jangamavāḍī ; HK. ; जंगमवाडी ..	SE ; 10-0	1·9 ; 298 ; 49 ; 298.	Rangoli 2-0
Jāphale ; PN. ; जाफळे ..	E ; 5-0	1·3 ; 503 ; 89 ; 457.	Kodoli 5-0
Jaralī ; GGJ. ; जरळी ..	E ; 3-0	3·1 ; 1914 ; 328 ; 1605.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Jaragī ; BVD. ; जरगी ..	SE ; 14-0	3·6 ; 429 ; 85 ; 320.	Gagan Bavada. 10-0
Jaṭhāravāḍī ; KV. ; जठारवाडी ..	N ; 6-0	1·1 ; 677 ; 151 ; 674.	Kolhapur 7-0
Jāvalī ; SHW. ; जावळी ..	NW ; 7-0	2·3 ; 246 ; 56 ; 246.	Malkapur 5-0
Jayasiṅgapūr ; SL. ; जयसिंगपूर ..	NW ; 4-0	0·3 ; 8049 ; 1628 ; 1572.	Local. —
Jeūr ; AJ. ; जेऊर ..	S ; 6-0	0·8 ; 161 ; 32 ; 161.	Ajra 6-0
Jiūr ; PN. ; जिऊर ..	N ; 3-0	1·4 ; 790 ; 135 ; 704.	Panhala 3-0
Kabanūr ; HK. ; कबनूर ..	S ; 4-0	3·1 ; 2616 ; 473 ; 2445.	Ichalkaranji. 3-0
Kadagāṅv ; GGJ. ; कडगांव ..	W ; 3-3	4·7 ; 3633 ; 596 ; 3043.	Local. —
Kadagāṅv ; BHD. ; कडगांव ..	S ; 9-0	3·1 ; 1258 ; 257 ; 899.	Shengaon 7-0
Kadāl ; GGJ. ; कडाल ..	S ; 8-0	0·8 ; 1539 ; 91 ; 1523.	Halkarni 4-0
Kadalage ; GGJ. ; कडलगे ..	E ; 10-0	3·1 ; 1249 ; 232 ; 1198.	Halkarni 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	40-0	Charan	Thu.	2-4	Kokrud	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Ganapati fr. (on any day in Ct. & Phg).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	15-0	Rendal	Thu.	3-0	Rendal	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Panhala	Sun.	7-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	25-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3-0	—	0-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Siddheswar dev fr. (Mg. Vad 4).; 4tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0	—	8-0		2tl.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	7-0	—	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Masoba dev fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	24-0	Malkapur	Fri.	5-0	—	0-6	rv., w.	2tl.
Local.		Local.	Sun.		Local		w.	4Sl (3pr, h).; Mun.; cs. (c).; 9tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.; 5dp.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri.	6-0	—	6-0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	14-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	3-0	Avali	3-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Hatkan-angale.	4-0	Ichalkaranji	Fri.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Pir Ur. on 17th March every year; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	34-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Kedarlingdeo fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 10tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; (Village Medical Centre.)
Kolhapur	40-0	Local.	Fri.		Local		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; fr. (Mg).; 3tl.; 2mq.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Hukkeri Road.	20-0	Halkarni	Wed.	4-0	—	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Chaloba dev fr. (on the first Tuesday after Mg. Sud 15).; 2tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Sankeshwar	Fri.	4-0	Hebal	2-0	str., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (Sm; Mon).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; dg. gym.; (Village medical centre.)

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Kaḍavē; BVD.; कडवे ..	SE; 10-0	1·3; 188; 39; 188.	Gagan Bavada. 10-0
Kaḍave; SHW.; कडवे ..	NW; 5-0	5·1; 1801; 342; 1762.	Malkapur 2-4
Kāgal; KG.; कागल ..	HQ;	11·3; 9821; 1991; 4687.	Local. —
Kākhe; PN.; काखे ..	NE; 8-4	1·6; 1264; 254; 982.	Kodoli 2-0
Kālajavaḍe; PN.; काळजवडे ..	W; 11-0	4·6; 591; 127; 586.	Panhala 16-0
Kālāmavāḍī; GGJ.; काळामवाडी.	S; 18-0	1·4; 298; 60; 278.	Nesari 5-0
Kalambe T. Kāle; ; KV.; कळंबे तर्फ काळे.	W; 9-4	0·6; 411; 80; 392.	Sangrul 1-0
Kalambe T. Ṭhāṇē; KV.; कळंबे तर्फ ठाणे.	S; 3-0	3·1; 1492; 306; 1085.	Kolhapur 3-0
Kalanākavāḍī; BHD.; कलनाकवाडी.	N; 2-0	1·2; 860; 148; 826.	Gargoti 2-0
Kalankavāḍī; RDN.; कलंकवाडी.	NE; 11-0	0·3; 107; 22; 105.	Murgud 16-0
Kalavī Katti; GGJ.; कळवी कट्टी.	S; 21-0	2·9; 1353; 258; 1172.	Yamkanmardi. 3-0
Kāle Kasabā; PN.; काळे कसबा.	S; 12-0	2·3; 2428; 457; 1249.	Local. —
Kāmbalavāḍī; RDN.; कांबळ वाडी	NE; 10-0	0·9; 328; 58; 329.	Kolhapur 31-0
Kāmbarḍe; RDN.; कांबर्डे ..	E; 13-0	4·1; 311; 64; 217.	Gargoti 40-0
Kānaḍevāḍī; GGJ.; कानडेवाडी.	S; 17-0	1·1; 460; 83; 430	Nesari 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 33-0	Gagan Bavada. Thu. 10-0	Bavada 10-0	rv.	tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 33-0	Malkapur Fri. 2-4	Malkapur 2-4	rv., w., str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 12-0	Local. Mon.	Local.	pl.	2Sl (2pr, h).; Mun.; 5cs. (mis, i, 3mp).; Hajrat gaibi pir Ur. (Kt. Sud I to 6).; 20tl.; 3M.; 2mq.; 2dg.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 8dp.; Cch.
Kolhapur 22-0	Kodoli Thu. 3-0	Kodoli 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhairav fr. (on the first Sunday after Ct. Sud. 15).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 23-0	Bazar Bhogaon. Wed. 4-0	Bhogaon 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Belgaum	Nesari Thu. 5-0	— 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 10-0	Sangrul Thu. 1-0	Kaparde 1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 3-0	Kolhapur Sun. 3-0	Local. —	t.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; mq.; 2gym.
Kolhapur 29-0	Gargoti Wed. 2-0	Local. —	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 3tl.; 3gym.
Kolhapur 23-0	Kasaba Tarale. Thu. 1-0	K. Varvade 4-0	rv.	tl.; ch.
Pacchapur 11-0	Yamkan-mardi. Tue. 3-0	Local. —	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Ur. (Moharum).; Kaleshwar dev fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; Laxmidevi fr. (once in 5 years).; 5tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 15-0	Local. Sat. —	— 0-3	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (con, mis).; 7tl.; 2M.; mq. 5gym.; ch.; lib.; 3dp.
Kolhapur 21-0	Kasaba Tarale. Thu. 2-0	A. Varvade 1-4	n.W., str.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur 42-0	Radha-nagari. Sun. 11-0	Radha-nagari. 13-0	rv.	3tl.
Belgaum 24-0	Nesari Thu. 2-0	Nesari 2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairavi devi fr. (Mg. Sud 5).; 4tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kanavāḍ ; SL. ; कनवाड ..	E ; 7-0	2·2 ; 1357 ; 240 ; 1343.	Shirol 7-0
Kāñcanavāḍī ; KV. ; कांचनवाडी ..	W ; 16-0	1·1 ; 686 ; 117 ; 608.	Kolhapur 14-0
Kāṇḍagāṅv ; KV. ; कांडगांव ..	S ; 8-0	2·4 ; 1272 ; 256 ; 891.	Kolhapur 8-4
Kandalagāṅv ; RDN. ; कांदलगांव	NW ; 17-0	1·7 ; 249 ; 44 ; 249.	Bavada 6-0
Kandalagāṅv ; KV. ; कांदलगांव ..	SW ; 5-0	2·8 ; 1005 ; 201 ; 936.	Shahupuri 5-0
Kāṇḍavaṇ ; SHW. ; कांडवण ..	N ; 15-0	5·8 ; 494 ; 101 ; 452.	Malkapur 14-0
Kaṇerī ; KV. ; कणेरी ..	S ; 6-2	5·7 ; 2395 ; 474 ; 2267.	Local.
Kaṇerī ; PN. ; कणेरी ..	W ; 8-0	3·5 ; 966 ; 184 ; 947.	Panhala 7-0
Kānolī ; AJ. ; कानोली ..	E ; 8-0	2·5 ; 1178 ; 203 ; 1140.	Ajra 8-0
Kāṇṭe ; SHW. ; कांटे	W ; 13-0	4·0 ; 239 ; 55 ; 233.	Bhogaon 15-0
Kanthevāḍī ; RDN. ; कंथेवाडी ..	NE ; 10-0	0·8 ; 334 ; 45 ; 298.	Murgud 15-0
Kapāśī ; KG. ; कपाशी ..	S ; 24-0	3·4 ; 3562 ; 759 ; 2101.	Local.
Kapāśī Mauje ; SHW. ; कपाशी मौजे ..	NE ; 9-0	1·6 ; 1420 ; 256 ; 989.	Sarud Kasaba. 9-0
Kapileśvar ; RDN. ; कपिलेश्वर ..	E ; 9-0	1·8 ; 1181 ; 212 ; 1028.	Murgud 9-0
Karaṁbaḷī ; BHD. ; करंबळी ..	S ; 12-0	1·2 ; 108 ; 16 ; 108.	Shengaon 10-0
Karaṁbaḷī ; GGJ. ; करंबळी ..	W ; 6-4	3·3 ; 1686 ; 283 ; 1586.	Gadhinglaj 6-0
Karaṅguḷe ; SHW. ; करंगुळे ..	NW ; 5-4	2·8 ; 866 ; 159 ; 847.	Malkapur 6-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Shedbal	4-0	Shirol	Sat.	7-0	Maisal	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Zania Pir Ur (Ct. Sud. 1).; mq.; dg.; gym.
Kolhapur	14-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-4		4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	8-4	Local.	Thu.		Local.	...	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3cs.; Ur. (in Vsk). 7tl.; 2mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	20-0	Bavada	Thu.	6-0	Radhanagari.	17-0	rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	5-4	Kolhapur	Sun.	5-0	—	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 2tl.; 2gym.; (Village Medical centre.)
Kolhapur	43-0	Malkapur	Fri.	14-0	—	14-0	rv.	
Kolhapur	9-0	Kagal	Thu. Mon.	5-0	—	1-4	w.	2Sl (pr. m).; 3cs.; Mahashivratra fr. (for five days from Mg. Vad 14).; 14tl.; M.; 2mq.; 2dh.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	18-0	Kotoli	Tue.	1-4	Katoli	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	3-0	Mahagaon	3-0	rv., w.	2Sl (2pr).; 2cs.; 6tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	15-0	-	13-0	rv.	
Kolhapur	22-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	2-0	K. Varavade.	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Local.	Mon.		Local.	—	w. rv.	2Sl (pr. m).; 2cs.; Bhaveshwari devi fr. (in Phg).; 8tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Kolhapur	27-0	Local	Thu.		Local.	—	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	24-0	Saravade	Fri.	2-0	--	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr.).; cs. (mis).; 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	48-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	2-0	Kadgaon	3-0	rv.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	30-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-0	—	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 9tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	38-0	Malkapur	Fri.	4-0	Madi	1-0		Sl (pr).; Minai fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Karañjapheṇ ; PN. ; करंजफेण ..	W ; 9–0	1·0 ; 504 ; 104 ; 439.	Panhala Kasaba. 8–0
Karañjapheṇ ; SHW. ; करंजफेण	W ; 14–0	2·2 ; 411 ; 85 ; 411.	Bhogaon 9–0
Karañjapheṇ ; RDN. ; करंजफेण	NE ; 5–0	0·9 ; 491 ; 97 ; 473.	Murgud 11–0
Karañjivaṇe ; KG. ; करंजिवणें ..	SW ; 25–0	2·3 ; 772 ; 160 ; 740.	Kapashi 4–0
Karaṇjośī ; SHW. ; करंजोषी	E ; 0–2	1·9 ; 592 ; 115 ; 577.	Shahuwadi 0–3
Karanūr ; Kg. ; करनूर ..	S ; 2–0	4·1 ; 1498 ; 306 ; 1296.	Kagal 1–4
Karḍe ; SHW. ; कर्डे ..	NW ; 26–0	3·7 ; 424 ; 89 ; 423.	Arale 5–0
Karadyal ; KG. ; करड्याळ ..	S ; 22–0	1·7 ; 584 ; 119 ; 544.	Kapashi 3–0
Karivaḍe (included in Phajivade) RDN. ; करिवडे (फेजीवडे)	SW ; 9–0	418 ; 75 ; 390.	Murgud 24–0
Kārīvaḍe ; BHD. ; कारीवडे ..	SW ; 12–0	4·0 ; 425 ; 79 ; 421.	Shengaon 19–0
Karpevāḍī ; AJ. ; कर्पेवाडी ..	S ; 11–0	0·9 ; 408 ; 93 ; 461.	Uttur. 2–4
Karuḷ ; BVD. ; करुळ ..	W ; 4–0	8·2 ; 2037 ; 435 ; 1775.	Local.
Kāsārakāṅdagāṅv ; AJ. ; कासार कांडगांव	S ; 3–0	2·6 ; 672 ; 118 ; 626.	Ajra 3–0
Kāsāra Putaḷe ; RDN. ; कासार पुतळे	E ; 6–4	1·4 ; 765 ; 161 ; 720.	Murgud 10–6
Kāsāravāḍā ; RDN. ; कासारवाडा	SE ; 9–0	1·7 ; 565 ; 113 ; 451.	Murgud 9–0
Kāsārḍẽ ; SHW. ; कासार्डे	NW ; 8–0	3·3 ; 450 ; 99 ; 450.	Malkapur 5–0
Kāsārī ; KG. ; कासारी ..	SW ; 22–0	1·9 ; 719 ; 137 ; 703.	Kapashi 2–0
Kātaḷī ; BVD. ; कातळी ..	SE ; 2–0	1·6 ; 177 ; 37 ; 155.	Gagan Bavada. 2–0
Kaṭebhogāṅv ; PN. ; काटे भोगांव	SW ; 9–0	3·1 ; 968 ; 182 ; 950.	Panhala Kasaba. 10–0
Kaulav ; RDN. ; कौलव ..	NE ; 14–0	3·6 ; 2228 ; 386 ; 2049.	Kolhapur 10–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutionals and other information.
Kolhapur	19–0	Kotoli	Tue.	2–0	Kotoli	3–0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	27–0	Bhogaon	Wed.	9–0			rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	23–0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	2-0		3–0	w., rv.	Sl (pr).: tl.
Kolhapur	38–0	Kapashi		4–0	Mon.	4–0	w.	Sl (pr.); Bhaveshwari devi fr. (Mg. Vad. 7); 3 tl.; gym. ch.
Kolhapur	—	Malkapur	Fri.	2–0	Shahuwadi	0–2	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).;
Kolhapur	13–0	Kagal	Thu.	1–4			rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch. (Vak. Sud. first Tue. Wed. Thu.); 2tl.; mq.; dg.; ch.
Kolhapur	48–0	Arale	Sat.	5–0		15–0	rv.	fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	37–0	Kapashi	Mon.	3–0	Jainyal	1–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ambabai devi fr. (Phg).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	38–0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	6–0		6–0	t., w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	45–0	Kadgaon	Fri.	0–0	Kadgaon	5–0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Hukkeri Road.		Uttur	Sat.	2–4			w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	41–0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10–0			w.	2Sl (2pr).; 4tl
Hukkeri Road.	45–0	Ajra	Fri.	3-0		3-0		Sl (pr).; cs.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	31-0	Saravade	Fri.	2-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	30–0	Saravade	Fri.	2-0		1–4	n., spr.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	28–0	Malkapur	Fri.	5–0		1–0	rv., w.	Dhopeshwar fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; tl.
Kolhapur	37–0	Kapashi		2–0		2–4	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari devi fr. (in Phg).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	32–0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	2–0	Gagan Bavada.	2–0	w., rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	18–0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	3–0		0–1	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling dev fr. (Ct. Vad 2).; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	16–0	Ghotawade	Mon.	1–0	Local		rv.	3Sl (3pr).; cs.; 6tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kavaṭhegulunḍ ; SL. ; कवठे गुलंड	SE ; 4–0	3·4 ; 1270 ; 188 ; 1241.	Kagwad 4–0
Kavaṭhesār ; SL. ; कवठेसार ..	..	2·8 ; 1635 ; 299 ; 1501.	Kavathe-piran. 1 4
Kāvaṇē ; KV. ; कावणे ..	S ; 15–0	1·4 ; 806 ; 155 ; 779.	Kolhapur 15–0
Kekhale ; PN. ; केखले ..	E ; 8–0	2·8 ; 1335 ; 206 ; 1213.	Kodoli Kasaba. 8–0
Kelośī ; ; BK. ; RDN. ; केळोशी बु.॥	N ; 8–0	8·1 ; 1181 ; 226 ; 1174 ;	Kolhapur 30–0
Kelośī Kh. ; RDN. ; केळोशी खु.	N ; 6–0	3·3 ; 625 ; 110 ; 613.	Kolhapur 30–0
Kembaḷī ; KG. ; कॆंबळी ..	W ; 11–0	0·9 ; 661 ; 122 ; 660.	Valve Bk. 4–0
Kenavaḍe , KG. ; केनवडे ..	SW ; 11–0	2.1 ; 981 ; 190 ; 956.	Kurli 7–0
Kerakabol ; AJ. ; केरकबोळ ..	SE ;	0·5 ; Deserted.	
Kerale ; KV. ; केरले ..	NE ; 6–4	3·9 ; 1891 ; 377 ; 1554.	Kolhapur 7–0
Keralī KV. ; केरली ..	N ; 4–4	2·6 ; 1440 ; 274 ; 1053.	Kolhapur 5–0
Kerle ; SHW. ; केर्ले ..	NW ; 0–0	2·9 ; 400 ; 89 ; 395.	Amba 3–0
Khaḍakevāḍā ; KG. ; खडकेवाडा	S ; 16–6	2·8 ; 1085 ; 344 ; 1382.	Kapashi 6–0
Kheḍole ; BVD. ; खडोले ..	E ; 10–2	1·1 ; 152 ; 28 ; 152.	Kasaba Kale. 2–0
Khāmbāle ; BVD. ; खांबाळे ..	S ; 14–0	4·0 ; 1311 ; 264 ; 1294.	Ashirne 1–0
Khamalehaṭṭi ; GGJ. ; खमलेहट्टी	SE ; 4–0	1·4 ; 763 ; 157 ; 688.	Gadhinglaj 4–0
Khanadāl ; GGJ. ; खनदाळ ..	W ; 8–0	3·7 ; 1413 ; 272 ; 1233.	Sankeshwar 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mhaisal 4-0	Kagwad Sun. 4-0	Wadi 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Margubai fr. (Vask).; 4tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 8-0	Sangli Sat. 6-0	Kumbhoj 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4cs. (c).; 3 (mis).; Hajrat Murtya Pir; Ur. (Mg. Sud. 10.; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 15-0	Thikpurli Wed. 3-0	—	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 13-0	Kodoli Kasaba. Thu. 3-0	Kodoli 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur 30-0	Dhamod Sat. 3-0	Khindiche Varavade.	str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Kolhapur 30-0	Dhamod Sat. 3-0	Amajai Vharavade. 6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Kedarling dev fr. (April); tl.
Kolhapur 14-0	Ispurli Fri. 3-0	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhairi dev fr. (Phg).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 21-0	Mhakve Sun. 4-0	- 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhairav dev fr. (Mg. Vad. first Sunday); 2tl.; gym.; ch.
	Deserted	Village.		
Kolhapur 7-0	Kolhapur Sun. 8-0	— 1-4	W.	Sl (pr).; 2 (cs).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 6tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; lib.; (mob).
Kolhapur 5-0	Kolhapur Sun. 5-0	Local.	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; mq.; 2gym.
Kolhapur 37-0	Malkapur Fri. 3-0	— 0-2	str.	tl.
Kolhapur 27-0	Kapashi Mon. 6-0	— 2-0	rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; cs.; Bhairav dev. fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; 4tl.; mq.; lib.
Kolhapur 14-0	Kasaba Kale. Sat. 2-0	0-2		tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 50-0	Phonda Mon. 9-0	Phonda 7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Mallappur 16-0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 4-0	3-0	w.	Sl (pr)., cs. (fmg).; tl.
Hukkeri Road. 21-0	Sankeshwar Fri. 2-0	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Khānāpūr ; AJ. ; खानापूर ..	SW ; 3-0	1·3 ; 284 ; 56 ; 274.	Ajra 3-0
Khānāpūr ; BHD. ; खानापूर ..	N ; 1-0	1·3 ; 958 ; 184 ; 842.	Gargoti 1-0
Khāparḍevāḍī ; BHD. ; खापर्डेवाडी	— —	6·4 ; — — —	— —
Khataṅgaḷe ; KV. ; खतंगळे ..	W ; 13-0	1·5 ; 926 ; 161 ; 907.	Kolhapur 13-0
Khebavaḍe ; KV. ; खेबवडे ..	S ; 17-0	3·1 ; 1364 ; 284 ; 1345.	Kagal 8-0
Kheḍage ; BHD. ; खेडगे ..	NE ; 10-0	1·4 ; 102 ; 16 ; 101.	Gargoti 8-0
Kheḍe ; AJ. ; खेडे ..	E ; 3-0	2·5 ; 814 ; 133 ; 759.	Ajra 3-4
Kheḍe ; SHW. ; खेडे ..	S ; 22-0	2·6 ; 552 ; 106 ; 502.	Arale 4-0
Kherīvaḍe ; BVD. ; खेरीवडे ..	E ; 16-0	1·5 ; 254 ; 54 ; 253.	Gagan Bavada. 11-0
Kherīvaḍe ; PN. ; खेरीवडे ..	S ; 13-0	0·5 ; 150 ; 31 ; 150.	Kale Kasaba. 1-0
Khidrapūr ; SL. ; खिद्रापूर ..	S ; 13-0	1·5 ; 1409 ; 260 ; 1097.	Local.
Khindīce Vharavaḍe ; RDN. ; खिंडीचे व्हरवडे.	S ; 6-0	1·8 ; 779 ; 150 ; 761.	Murgud 12-0
Khoci ; HK. ; खोची ..	N ; 7-0	3·8 ; 2397 ; 471 ; 2274.	Vadgaon (Kasaba) 6-0
Khokurle ; BVD. ; खोकुर्ले ..	E ; 7-0	3·0 ; 427 ; 90 ; 416.	Gagan Bavada. 1-0
Khupire ; KV. ; खुपीरे ..	W 6-0	4·7 ; 2827 ; 442 ; 2573.	Kolhapur 6-0
Kiṇẽ ; AJ. ; किणें ..	SE ; 8-0	2·9 ; 814 ; 148 ; 707.	Nesari 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutionals and other information.
Hukkeri Road.	45-0	Ajra	Fri.	3-0	—	3-0	o.	tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	1-0	Local		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mls).; 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
		DESERTED.						
Kolhapur	13-0	Sangrul	Thu.	1-4	Koparde	3-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	10-0	Kagal	Tue.	8-0	—	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 6tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	41-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	3-0	—	6-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	38-0	Ajra	Fri.	3-4	—	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr)., tl.; ch.
Karad	30-0	Arale	Sat.	4-0	—	12-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	29-0	Dhundavade.	Sun.	1-0	—	8-0	rv., spr.	tl.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	1-0	—	0-2	w	Sl (pr).; tl.
Shedbal	9-0	Dattawad	Wed.	4-0	—	4-0	rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; Poushachi fr. (Vsk. Vad. 30).; 3tl.; 3mq.; 2dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	23-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	1-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c); Maruti fr. (An Sud. 10 and Ct. Sud 15).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Hatkanangale.	9-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	3-0	Local		rv.	2Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; cs. (c). Bhairav dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 5tl.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	25-0	Palsambe	Tue.	3-0	Khokurle Road.	0-1	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	8-0	Sangrul	Thu.	5-0			w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; Maruti dev fr. (An. Sud 10). 6tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; 7gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	51-0	Nesari	Thu.	3-0	—	8-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Laxmi fr. (in March once in three years); 3tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kiṇī ; HK. ; किणी ..	NW ; 13-0	4·4 ; 3192 ; 605 ; 2574.	Local.
Kirave ; BVD. ; किरवे ..	E ; 17-4	1.1 ; 365 ; 61 ; 365.	Kasaba Kale. 5-0
Kisarul ; PN. ; किसरुळ ..	W ; 10-0	2·4 ; 897 ; 159 ; 866.	Panhala Kasaba. 13-0
Kiṭavaḍe ; AJ. ; किटवडे ..	W ; 14-7	12·4 ; 957 ; 165 ; 568.	Ajra 13-0
Koḍavaḍe ; RDN. ; कोडवडे ..	NE ; 16-0	0·7 ; 305 ; 57 ; 303.	Kolhapur 17-0
Kodavaḍe ; PN. ; कोदवडे ..	SW ; 16-0	0·8 ; 364 ; 69 ; 335.	Kale Kasaba. 4-0
Kode ; SHW. ; कोदे ..	NW ; 4-0	0·2 ; 56 ; 9 ; 56.	Malkapur 2-0
Kode Bk. ; BVD. ; कोदे बु॥ ..	NW ; 10-0	8·4 ; 504 ; 110 ; 480.	Kasaba Kale. 12-0
Kode Kh. ; BVD. ; कोदे खुर्द ..	NW ; 12-0	2·5 ; 242 ; 57 ; 242.	Kasaba Kale. 12-0
Koḍolī Kasabā ; PN. ; कोडोली कसबा.	SE ; 9-0	8·6 ; 7597 ; 1454 ; 4594.	Local.
Koge ; KV. ; कोगे ..	W ; 8-0	2·5 ; 1641 ; 282 ; 1565.	Kolhapur 7-0
Kogil Bk. ; KV. ; कोगिल बु॥ ..		2·8 ; 649 ; 137 ; 601.	Kaneri 3-0
Kogil Kh. ; KV. कोगिल खुर्द ..	Sw ; 10-0	0·8 ; 443 ; 100 ; 482.	Kaneri. 2-0
Kokīsare ; BVD. ; कोकीसरे ..	Sw ; 11-0	9·7 ; 3118 ; 652 ; 2777.	Local.
Kolagāṅv ; SHW. ; कोळगांव ..	W ; 1-0	1·4 ; 635 ; 120 ; 462.	Shahuwadi 0-4
Kolape ; BVD. ; कोळपे ..	W ; 13-0	0·6 ; 861 ; 120 ; 855.	Kharepatan. 10-0
Koḷavan ; BHD. ; कोळवण ..	W ; 5-0	1·5 ; 431 ; 84 ; 421.	Madilge Bk. 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutionals and other information.
Kolhapur 15-0	Local. Fri.	Local.	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; cs. (mis).; Mahashivaratri fr. (Mg. Vad. 14).; 8tl.; 3mq.; 2dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 17-0	Kasaba Kale. Sat. 5-0	-- 2-0	w.	tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 20-0	Bajar Bhogaon. Wed. 2-0	Bajar Bhogaon. 4-0	rv., w.	cs.; fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 53-0	Ajra Fr. 13-0	— 3-6	cl.	Sl (pr).; Mahashivaratri fr. (Mg. Vad. 14).; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 17-0	Ghotawade Mon. 2-0	Kaulav 1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 16-0	Kale Kasaba. Sat. 4-0	Kale 16-0	rv.	2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 31-0	Malkapur Fri. 2-0	Malkapur 2-4	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur 24-0	Tisangi Salvan. Fri. 8-0	— 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 24-0	Tisangi Salvan. Fri. 3-0	— 2-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur 22-0	Local. Fri.	Local.	w., w.	3Sl (2pr, h).; pyt.; 3cs.; 8tl ; mq.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 4dp.; Cch.
Kolhapur 7-0	Kolhapur Sun. 7-0	-- -	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 9-0	Kolhapur Sun. 9-0	— 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr)., cs.; Ramnavami fr (Ct. Sud. 9); 4tl.; mq.; gym.
Kolhapur 8-0	Kolhapur Sun 8-0	— 4-0	spr.	Sl (pr); cs.; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 50-0	Tarale Thu. 9-0	Phonda 12-0	w.	4Sl (2pr, 2m).; pyt.; 8tl.; mq.; dp.
Kolhapur 20-0	Malkapur Fri. 1-0	Shahuwadi 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Shri Jyotiba fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 3tl.; gym.;
Kolhapur 45-0	Kharepatan Tue. 10-0	Kharepatan 9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; frs. (1) (Kt. Sud. 15) (2) (Phg. Sud. 15).; 2tl.; 2mq.
Kolhapur 30-0	Gargoti Wed. 5-0	Gargoti 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kolhāpūr ; KV. ; कोल्हापूर ..	HQ.;	24·8 ;186836 ;27214 ;16985	Local.
(a) Bāvadā Infantry ; KV. ; ..	N ; -0	3208 ; 746 ; 60.	Kolhapur.
(b) Bāvādā (Kasaba) ; KV. ; ..	N ; 3-0	6224 ; 1215 ; 2692.	Kolhapur.
(c) Bhosale Vādi ; KV. ; ..	N ; 3-0	429 ; 80 ; 232.	Kolhapur.
(d) Jadhavavādi ; KV. ; ..	E ; 2 0	561 ; 98 ; 397.	Kolhapur.
(e) Kadamavādi ; KV. ; ..	E ; 2-0	1153 ; 207 ; 1058.	Kolhpaur.
(f) Tembalaivādi ; KV. ; ..	E ; 2-0	454 ; 97 ; 85.	Kolhapur.
Kolik ; PN. ; कोलिक ..	W.; 15-0	6·0 ; 540 ; 113 ; 517.	Panhala Kasaba. 21-0
Kolindre ; AJ. ; कोळिंद्रे ..	E ; 9-0	2·6 ; 957 ; 165 ; 943.	Nesari 2-0
Kololī ; PN. ; कं.लोली ..	SW.; 7-0	2·0 ; 1420 ; 277 ; 1210.	Panhala Kasaba. 9 0
Konavaḍe ; BHD. ; कोनवडे ..	N ; 5-0	6·3 ; 928 ; 173 ; 917.	Madilge Bk. 4-0
Koṇḍigre ; SL. ; कोंडीग्रे ..	NW.; 0-0	2·7 ; 557 ; 100 ; 535.	Ichalkaranji 4-0
Koṇḍośi ; BHD. ; कोंडोशी ..	W.; 13-0	6·6 ; 883 ; 160 ; 857.	Shengaon 12-0
Konolī T. Asaṇḍolī ; RDN. ; कोनोली तर्फ असंडोली.	N.; 17-0	6·1 ; 627 ; 121 ; 599.	Bavada 9-0
Konolī T. Ainaghol ; RDN. ; कोनोली तर्फ ऐनघोळ.	S ; 15-0	9·3 ; 464 ; 87 ; 447.	Gargoti 25-0
Kopārḍe ; SHW. ; कोपार्डे ..	N ; 1-2	0·8 ; 572 ; 106 ; 560.	Malkapur 1-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Local.		Local.	Sun.		Local.		t.,rv.,pl.	98Sl (81pr, 6m, 11h). mun.; 142cs.; 39tls.; 4M; 20mq.; 9dg.; 3dh.; 39 gym.; ch.; 182lib.; 44dp. 4Coh.; Ambabai temple Old & new places, Town Hall the famous.
Kolhapur		Kolhapur	Sun.			2-0	pl.	Sl (pr, m).; 3tl.; mq.
Kolhapur		Kolhapur			Local.		pl., rv.	7Sl (7pr. h).; 5cs.; Maruti dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 5tl.; 2dg.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Kolhapur		Kolhapur	Sun.			2-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur		Kolhapur	Sun.			0-1	pl.	Sl (pr).;
Kolhapur		Kolhapur	Sun.			2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur		Kolhapur	Sun.			1-4	w., pl.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur	29-0	Bazar Bhogaon.	Wed.	29-0	Bazar Bhogaon.	9-0	rv., str.	Sl (m).; tl.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	Nesari	2-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	10-0	Kotoli	Tue.	1-0		1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Gadai devi fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 2tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	34-0	Gargoti	Wed.	4-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Yamabai devi fr. (once in three or four years).; 4tl.; gym. ch.
Jaysingpur	4-0	Jaysingpur	Sun.	4-0	Local.	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (on any Sunday during the month of February or March); 2tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gargoti	Wed.	3-4	Local.		rv., w.	Sl (pr)., tl.; 2mq; dh.
Kolhapur	23-0	Dhamod	Sat.	7-0	Kale	13-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	39-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	9-0	Radhanagari.	15-0	w.	3tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fr.	1-0	Malkapur	1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhairi dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kopārḍe ; KV. ; कोपार्डे ..	W ; 8-0	1·0 ; 1071 ; 178 ; 999.	Kolhapur 8-0
Korīvaḍe ; AJ. ; कोरीवडे ..	N ; 7-0	2·4 ; 364 ; 68 ; 361.	Ajra 5-0
Koroci ; HK. ; कोरोची ..	S ; 2-0	2·6 ; 1603 ; 351 ; 1616.	Local.
Kote ; RDN. ; कोते ..	N ; 15-0	4·1 ; 1348 ; 266 ; 1283.	Kolhapur 21-0
Kothalī ; SL. ; कोथळी ..	N ; 9-0	5·8 ; 2896 ; 562 ; 2737.	Local.
Kothalī ; KV. ; कोथळी ..	W ; 11-0	2·2 ; 1090 ; 212 ; 1035 ;	Kolhapur 11-0
Kotolī ; SHW. ; कोतोली ..	N ; 8-0	6·6 ; 2193 ; 416 ; 2135.	Malkapur 8-0
Kotolī ; PN. ; कोतोली .	W ; 7-0	4·4 ; 3181 ; 601 ; 2586.	Local.
Koulage ; KG ; कौलगे ..	SW 11-0	2·1 ; 1335 ; 256 ; 1140.	Kurli 1-4
Kouluge ; GGJ. ; कौलुगे ..	S ; 6-0	1·0 ; 1417 ; 230 ; 1206.	Gadhinglaj 6-0
Kowāḍe ; AJ. ; कोवाडे ..	E ; 7-0	5·1 ; 1728 ; 273 ; 1573.	Mahagaon 3-4
Kuḍataravāḍī ; BHD ; कुडतरवाडी	W ; 11-0	0·7 ; 164 ; 21 ; 102.	Shengaon 0-4
Kuḍitre ; KV. ; कुडित्रे ..	W ; 9-0	2·5 ; 1488 ; 280 ; 1264.	Kolhapur 8-0
Kuḍutrī ; RDN. कुडुत्री ..	NE ; 5-0	1·3 ; 583 ; 103 ; 569.	Murgud 11-0
Kukuḍawāḍī ; RDN. ; कुकुडवाडी	NE ; 5-0	1·2 ; 137 ; 32 ; 137.	Murgud 17-0
Kumarī ; GGJ. ; कुमरी ..	17-4	2·6 ; 563 ; 115 ; 549.	Nesari 6-0
Kumbalohāl ; GGJ. ; कुंबळहाळ ..	SE ; 9-0	1·2 ; 334 ; 76 ; 289.	Halkarni 1-0
Kumbhavaḍe ; SHW. कुंभवडे ..	SW ; 20-0	4·6 ; 324 ; 68 ; 323.	Malkapur 18-0
Kumbhavaḍe ; BVD. कुंभवडे ..	W ; 6-0	3.8 ; 609 ; 120 ; 598.	Karul 2-0
Kumbhārvaḍī ; BHD. ; कुंभारवाडी	SE ; 8-4	0·6 ; 134 ; 33 ; 182.	Gargoti 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutional other information.
Kolhapur	8-0	Sangrul	Thu.	2-0	Local.		rv., W. spr.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; tl.; 3gym.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Ajra	Fri.	5-0		5-0		Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr., (Ct. Sud. 2).; 3tl.
Hatkanangale.	2-0	Hatkanangale.	Tue.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; 3cs. (3mis).; fr. (Mg. Vad. 14).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	11-0	Dhamod	Sat.	3-0	A. Varavade.	0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.
Jaysingpur	3-0	Jaysingpur	Sun.	3-0	Jaysingpur	4-0	W., rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; cs. (c).; Musalman Ur. (Phg. Vad. 11).; 11tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.; Cch.
Kolhapur	11-0	Hasur Dumala.	Mon	2-0		0-1	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Dassara fr. (An. Sud 10).; 8tl.; mq.; ch.; lib., (mob).
Kolhapur	35-0	Malkapur	Fri.	8-0		2-0	W., str.	Sl (pr).; 5tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	18-0	Local.	Tue.		Local.		str.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; tl.; mq.; 2gym.; dp.
Kolhapur	22-0	Mhakve	Sun.	2-0		1-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	37-0	Local	Sun.			1-1	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Laxmi fr. (Mg. Vad. 3).; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	36-0	Mhagaon	Mon.	3-4		2-0	rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; 2cs.; Laxmidevi fr.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	42-0	Gargoti	Wed.	3-4		2-0	w., str.	
Kolhapur	9-0	Sangrul	Thu.	1-4		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.; lib. (mob).
Kolhapur	14-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	1-4		1-0	W., rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	24-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	1-0	K. Varavade.	5-0	w.	tl.
Belgaum	24-0	Adkur	Wed.	3-0		4-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	27-0	Halkarni	Wed.	1-0		1-0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	35-0	Malkapur	Fri.	18-0	Malkapur	18-0	rv., str.	tl.
Kolhapur	43-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	7-0			w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	40-0	Kadgaon	Wed.	3-0		1-0	rv.	

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Kumbhoj; HK.; कुंभोज ..	N; 5-4	12·8; 5968; 1060; 5286.	Local.
Kūr; BHD.; कूर ..	N; 6-0	1·9; 1207; 222; 1145.	Gargoti 5-0
Kuraḍū Dumālā; KV.; कुरडू दुमाला. ..	SW; 11-0	1·1; 683; 131; 613.	Karvir 12-0
Kurakuṇḍe; AJ.; कुरकुंडे ..	— —	0·6; — — —	— —
Kurli; BVD.; कुर्ली ..	S; 16-0	0·3; 1775; 348; 1039.	Achirne 4-0
Kurṇī; KG.; कुरणी ..	SW; 28-0	1·0; 716; 130; 650.	Kurli 16-0
Kurukalī; KV.; कुरुकळी ..	W; 12-6	1·5; 1280; 211; 1214.	Kolhapur 12-0
Kurukalī; KG.; कुरुकली ..	SW; 22-0	1·2; 742; 160; 582.	Kurli 6-0
Kurundavāḍ; SL.; कुरुंदवाड ..	S; 3-4	7·0; 9744; 1838; 4846.	Local.
Kuśire; PN.; कुशिरे ..	E; 8-0	1·8; 940, 213; 838.	Kolhapur 5-0
Kusūr; BVD.; कुसूर ..	W; 12-0	3·4; 2117; 396; 1958.	Local.
Kuṭavāḍ; SL.; कुटवाड .	E; 6-0	1·4; 836; 146; 779.	Shirol 5-4
Lakhamāpūr, BVD.; लखमापूर ..	SE; 3-0	2·9; 205; 41; 199.	Gagan Bavada. 4-0
Lākūḍavāḍī; AJ.; लाकूडवाडी ..	E; 12-0	0·6; 557; 92; 546.	Nesari 4-0
Lāṭ; SL.; लाट ..	SW; 11-0	9·2; 4910; 896; 4490.	Local.

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hatkanangale.	5-0	Local.	Sun., Wed.		Local.		w., t.	4Sl (3pr, h).; pyt.; 2cs. (2mis).; Bahubalidev fr. (Kt. Sud. 15).; 15tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.; Cch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Murgud	Tue.	4-0	Local.		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; 2dp.
Kolhapur	12-0	Ispurli	Fri.	2-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Renukadevi fr. (Ct. Vad. 5).; 2tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; lib. (mob).;
			Deserted.					
Kolhapur	64-0	Phonda	Mon.	6-0	Phonda	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Tripuri Purnima fr. (Kt. Sud 15).; 5tl.
Kolhapur	40-0	Murgud	Tue.	1-4	Murgud	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Halsiddhapa dev fr. (Kt. Vad 2). 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	13-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-0		2-4	rv.	3Sl (3pr).; cs.; 5tl.; gym.; ch.; lib. (mob).
Kolhapur	34-0	Murgud	Tue.	5-0	Sonage	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Ghodkar dev fr. (An. Sud 8).; 4tl.; gym; ch.; lib.
Jaysingpur	14-0	Local.	Thu.		Local.		pl.	4Sl (3pr, h).; Mun.; 2cs. (2c).; Mahashivratri fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 7tl.; 13mq.; dg.; 2dh.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; 6dp.
Kolhapur	5-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	5-0		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; fr. for about a month from (Ct. Sud 1).; tl.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	46-0	Local.	Wed.			10-0	w.	4Sl (pr, 3m).; fr., 5tl.
Miraj	7-0	Shirol	Sat.	5-4	Shirol	6-0	rv	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; tl.
Kolhapur	34-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	4-0	Gagan Bavada.	3-0	rv.	
Mallapur	36-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	4-0		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Hatkanangale.	10-0	Ichalkaranji	Fri.	4-0		5-0	rv., t.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2c).; Kaleshwar Deo fr. (An. Vad 30).; 6tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Lāṭagāṅv; AJ. लाटगांव ..	NW; 6-0	0·4; 603; 114; 587.	Ajra 7-0
Lāṭavaḍe; HK.; लाटवडे ..	N; 11-0	3·3; 2217; 386; 2080.	Vadgaon (Kasaba). 3-0
Linganūr Dumālā; KG.; लिंगनूर (दुमाला).	SE; 1-4	0·0; 1119; 182; 781.	Kognoli 1-0
Linganūr Kāpaśi; KG.; लिंगनूर (कापशी).	S; 15-4	2·1; 786; 163; 669.	Kapashi 6-0
Linganūr Nesari; GGJ.; लिंगनूर नेसरी.	SE; 12-0	1·3; 584; 103; 583.	Gadhinglaj 2-0
Linganūr Nūl; GGJ.; लिंगनूर नूल	W; 2-0	2·0; 1159; 266; 945.	Nesari 6-0
Lolāṇē; SHW.; लोळाणें ..	NW; 8-0	1·3; 359; 72; 354.	Malkapur 0-0
Longhe; BVD.; लोंघे ..	E; 18-4	1·0; 281; 17; 281.	Kasaba Kale. 3-0
Lore; BVD.; लोरे ..	S; 18-0	3·6; 1914; 390; 1808.	Achirne 1-0
Loṭevāḍī; BHD.; लोटेवाडी ..	NW; 4-0	0·5; 450; 90; 451.	Gargoti 5-0
Mādale; KV.; मादळे ..	N; 12-0	0·9; 320; 73; 310.	Kolhapur 8-0
Maḍilage Bk.; BHD.; मडीलगे बु.	N; 4-0	2·0; 2295; 388; 1723.	Local.
Māḍilage; AJ.; माडिलगे ..	E; 4-0	3·4; 1367; 232; 1177.	Ajra 4-0
Maḍilage Kh.; BHD.; मडिलगे खु.	N; 3-0	1·0; 686; 106; 641.	Gargoti 3-0
Maḍūra; BHD.; मडूर ..	W; 5-0	1·8; 1087; 192; 1069.	Shengaon 1-4
Mādyāḷ; GGJ.; माद्याळ ..	E; 4-0	1·3; 932; 180; 718.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Mādyāḷ; KG.; माद्याळ ..	SW; 27-0	4·6; 2360; 431; 2124.	Kapashi 4-0
Māgholi; BHD.; माघोली ..	S; 12-0	4·6; 554; 108; 545.	Shengaon 11-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hukkeri Road.	45-0	Ajra	Fri.	7-0	Ajra	6-0	c.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hatkanangale.	10-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	3-0		2-0	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; 4tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	14-0	Kognoli	Fri.	1-0		1-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; 3gym.; ch.; (Rural medical centre.)
Kolhapur	27-0	Nipani	Thu.	4-0	Local.		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhavoshwari fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; mq. gym.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	2-0		5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Belgaum	26-0	Daddi	Mon	3-4		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Basveshwar fr. (Ct. Vad 5, 6).; 5tl. mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Malkapur	Fri.	6-0	Nile	3-0	str., rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kasaba Kale.	Sat.	3-2		0-4	rv.	Maruti deo fr. (1st Saturday after Ct. Sud. 1).: 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	60-0	Phonda	Mon.	4-0	Phonda	3-0	w.	8Sl (pr, 7m).; tl.
Kolhapur	31-0	Gargoti	Wed.	5-0	Gargoti	4-0	str., w.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur	9-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	8-0			w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	27-0	Gargoti	Wed.	4-0		1-0	w., rv., str., t.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; 7tl.; M.; 3gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Hukkeri Road.	37-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr)., 4tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Gargoti	Wed.	3-0		2-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Kedarling fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; 3tl.; 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	36-0	Shengaon	Thu.	1-4	Gargoti	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	25-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	3-0	Gadhinglaj	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Somlingdev fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 2tl., mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	39-0	Kapashi	Mon.	4-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c). Bhaveshwari devi fr.; (Mg).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	44-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	4-0		4-0	c.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Mahāgāṅv ; GGJ. ; महागांव ..	W; 6–0	7·4; 4527; 851; 5666.	Local
Mahāgoṇḍ ; AJ. ; महागोंड ..	N; 5–0	2·0; 1052; 170; 999.	Uttur 5–0
Mahāluṅge ; KV. ; महालुंगे ..	S; 14–4	2·5; 1343; 240; 1288.	Kolhapur 14–0
Mahe ; KV. ; महे ..	SW; 8–0	1·6; 1077; 182; 1007.	Kolhapur 8–0
Mājagāṅv ; PN. ; माजगांव ..	S; 5–0	2·0; 2090; 383; 1901.	Panhala Kasaba. 6–0
Mājagāṅv ; RDN. ; माजगांव ..	E; 15–6	1·8; 636; 100; 633.	Murgud 10–0
Majale ; HK. ; मजले ..	NE; 2–0	2·9; 1256; 235; 1114.	Hatkanangale. 2–0
Mājanāḷ ; PN. ; माजनाळ ..	SW; 8–0	0·9; 785; 165; 758.	Kale Kasaba. 2–4
Mājarevāḍī ; SL. ; माजरेवाडी ..	S; 5–4	1·3; 929; 165; 912.	Kurundwad 1–0
Maladevāḍī ; GGJ. ; मालदेवाडी ..	S;	0·4;	
Mālagāṅv ; SHW. ; मालगांव .	NE; 12–0	2·3; 349; 65; 344.	Charan 4–0
Malage Bk. ; KG. ; मलगे बु. ..	SW; 15–0	1·7; 1122; 173; 985.	Kurli 10–0
Malage Kh. ; KG. ; मलगे खु. ..	SW; 13–0	1·7; 865; 165; 828.	Kurli 9–0
Malakāpūr ; SHW. ; मलकापूर ..	N; 1–2	10·3; 3299; 641; 576.	Local.
Mālāpuḍe ; SHW. ; माळापुडे ..	S; 12–0	2·1; 815; 150; 761.	Bhogaon 3–0
Mālave ; RDN. ; मालवे ..	....	0·5; 466; 79; 270.	Murgud 11–0
Māle ; HK. ; माले ..	W; 5–0	2·1; 861; 158; 710.	Shahapuri 10–0
Māle ; PN ; माले ..	NE; 6–0	4.2; 2542; 518; 1922.	Kodoli Kasaba. 3–0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hukkeri Road.	34-0	Local	Mon.		Local.		rv., t.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 9tl.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Hukkeri Road.	32-0	Uttur	Sat.	5-0		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	14-0	Ispurli	Fri.	3-0	Ispurli	3-4	rv., t., W.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; 3gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	9-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	8-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; dh.; 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	7-0		1-0	rv.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; 5tl.; 4gym.; lib.; Cch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Thikapurli	Wed.	1-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Hatkanangale.	2-0	Hatkanangale.	Tue.	2-0	Hatkanangale.	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2 mis). 6tl.. ch.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	2-4		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Kedarling dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 4tl; gym.; ch.; lib. (mobile).
Jaysingpur	10-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	1-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 5tl.; 2M.; mq.; dg.; gym.
--	--	Deserted			--		--	--
Kolhapur	43-0	Charan	Thu.	4-0	Kokrud	7-0	rv.	2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	35-0	Murgud	Tue.	4-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	31-0	Murgud	Tue.	5-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Local.	Fri.		Local		w.	5Sl (2pr, 2m, h).; 2cs., Marima devi fr. (on first Friday after Vsk. Sud.: 15); 12tl.; mq.; 2dh gym.; ch; lib.; 6dp.
Kolhapur	25-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	3-0			rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Italaidevi fr. (Ct. Vad. 8).; tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	20-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	4-0		1-4	rv., str., o.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; ch.
Rukadi	3-0	Hele	Sat.	1-0		1-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; cs. (mis).: Bramhanath dev fr. (Ct. Sud. 15).; 5tl.;
Kolhapur	13-0	Kodoli Kasaba.	Fri.	2-0	Local		W., str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; Ramnavami fr. (Ct. Sud. 9). 9tl.; 2mq.; dh.; 5gym. ch.; lib.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Mālevāḍī; SHW.; मालेवाडी .	N; 11-0	1·4; 703; 152; 762.	Charan 1-0
Muligre; AJ.; मलिग्रे .	E, 7-0	3·5; 1387; 239; 1374.	Mahagaon 4-0
Mallevāḍī; RDN.; मल्लेवाडी	SW; 4-0	0·4; 201; 41; 374.	Murgud 7-0
Mamadāpūr; BHD.; ममदापूर ..	S; 11-0	1·2; 445; 65; 434.	Shengaon 8-0
Mān; SHW.; माण ..	W; 5 0	6·7; 951; 212; 848.	Malkapur 3-0
Mānabeṭ; RDN.; मानबेट ..	SW; 10-0	11·4; 339; 70; 339.	Bavada 21-0
Mānadukalī; BVD.; मानदुकली ..	E; 12-0	4·8; 627; 142; 624.	Kasaba Kale. 0 0
Maṇadūr; BVD.; मणदूर ..	E; 14·0	1·9; 502; 94; 467	Kasaba Kale. 6-0
Māṇagāṅv; SHW.; माणगांव ..	NE; 9-0	1·4; 830; 145; 773.	Bhedasgaon 2 0
Māṇagāṅv; HK.; माणगांव ..	SW; 4 0	5·6; 4142; 807; 3623.	Local.
Manapāḍale; HK.; मनपाडले ..	W, 15-0	4·3, 1312; 271; 1350.	Vadgaon (Kasaba). 6-0
Mānavale; BHD.; मानवळे .	S; 9 0	4·0; 705; 125; 691.	Gargoti 9-0
Manavāḍ; GGJ., मनवाड ..	NW; 10-0	1·6; 913; 166; 769.	Halkarni 3-0
Mānavāḍ, PN.; मानवाड ..	W; 13 0	5·3, 510; 100; 498.	Panhala Kasaba. 18-0
Māṇḍāre; KV.; मांडारे .	W; 20 0	0·9; 539; 96; 530.	Kolhapur 17 0
Māṅganūr; KG.; मांगनूर ..	SW: 29 0	1·7; 1250; 245; 1121.	Uttur 6-0
Māṅganūr; GGJ.. मांगनूर ...	S; 11 0	2·1; 900; 166; 753.	Nesari 5-0
Māṅgavalī; BVD.; मांगवली ..	W; 11-0	4·9; 1310; 244; 1190.	Kharepatan 19 0
Māṅgevāḍī; RDN.; मांगेवाडी ..	....	0 3; 375; 74; 314.	Murgud 6-0
Māṅgolī; RDN.; मांगोली .	E; 9-0	1·4; 851; 157; 805.	Murgud 8-0
Mānī; BHD.; मानी ..	W; 18-0	5·4, 133; 20; 136.	Shengaon 21-0
Māñjaravāḍī: KV.: मांजरवाडी..	SW; 18-0	0·1; 123; 21; 115.	Kolhapur 20-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	50-0	Charan	Thu.	1-0	Kokarud	3-0	rv.	SI (pr).; Malhari dev fr.; (Ct. Vad 11).; tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	25-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	4-0	Mahagaon	3-0	w.	SI (pr).; 2cs.; 5tl.; ch.. (Rural medical centre.)
Kolhapur	26-0	Saravade	Thu.	6-0	--	1-0	W., o.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	41-0	Kadgaon	Fri	1-0		1-0	rv.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	33-0	Malkapur	Fri.	3-0	Malkapur	4-0	rv., w., str.	2 SI (pr).; 5tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	20-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	8-0	Radhanagari.	10-0	rv., n.	tl.; Famous as hunting yard.
Kolhapur	21-0	Tisangi Salvan.	Fri.	3-0		4-2	rv, spr.	SI (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	20-0	Tisangi (Salvan).	Fri.	3-0	-	2-0	w., rv.	SI (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	29-0	Kapashi	Thu.	2-0	Malkapur	9-0	rv.	SI (pr).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Rukadi	1-4	Rukadi	Thu.	1-4		2-0	w., t.	cs.(mis).; fr. (Ct. Sud. 1).; 10tl.; mq.; dg.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; dp
Kolhapur	15-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	6-0		2-0	w.	SI (pr).; pyt.; cs. (mis).; Jugai devi fr. (on the first Tuesday after ct. Sud 15); 4tl.; mq.; 4gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	40-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	4-0	Gargoti	9-0	w., str.	SI (pr).; Kedarling deity fr. (Mg).; 2tl.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Halkarm	Wed.	3-0		3-0	t.	SI (pr).; cs. (fmg)., 3tl. gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	26-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	7-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	7-0	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kasur Dumala	Tue	3-0			w.	SI (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	37-0	Gargoti		4-0	-	8-0	w.	SI (pr).; Bhaveshwari devi fr. (in Mg).; 2tl.; ch.
Belgaum	22-0	Nesari	Thu.	5-0	Hatkanangale.	2-0	str.	SI (pr).; cs.; 2tl.
Kolhapur	45-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	12-0	Bavada	13-0	w.	2SI (2pr)., 4tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Saravade	Fri.	0-2	--	0-4	rv.	cs.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Saravade	Fri	2-0		1-0	rv.	SI (pr).; cs. (c).; 4tl; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	55-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	14-0	Pasgaon	2-0	rv., str.	
Kolhapur	20-0	Dhamod		4-0	--	0-0	rv.	tl.

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Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; *Village name in Deonagari.*	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Mãñjare ; SHW. ; मांजरे ..	W ; 18-0	3·8 ; 361 ; 78 ; 329.	Malkapur 12-0
Mānolī ; SHW. ; मानोली ..	NW ; 13-4	5·7 ; 450 ; 105 ; 338.	Amba 1-0
Marale ; SHW. ; मरळे ..	W ; 12-0	1·3 ; 242 ; 4 ; 230.	Bhogaon 10-0
Maralī ; PN. ; मरळी ..	S ; 11-0	0·8 ; 614 ; 95 ; 579.	Panhala Kasaba. 11-0
Mārgevāḍī ; BVD. ; मार्गेवाडी ..	E, 14-0	0·6 ; 120 ; 36 ; 110.	Kasaba Kale. 7-0
Masevāḍī ; GGJ. , मासेवाडी ..	S ; 10-0	1·5 ; 624 ; 121 ; 612.	Mahagaon 4-0
Masevāḍī ; AJ. ; मासेवाडी ..	E ; 6-0	1·5 ; 706 ; 94 ; 684.	Uttur 4-0
Masoli ; AJ. ; मसोली ..	NE ; 3-0	1·8 ; 288 ; 55 ; 283.	Ajra 4-0
Maṭh Bk. ; BVD. ; मठ बु॥ ..	SW ; 11-0	2·0 ; 832 ; 168 , 540.	Achirne 1-0
Maṭhagāñv ; BHD. ; मठगांव ..	W ; 17-0	10·0 ; 726 ; 142 ; 707.	Shengaon 14-0
Meḍhevāḍī ; AJ. ; मेढेवाडी .	W ; 6 0	2·0 ; 242 ; 49 ; 242.	Ajra 6-0
Meṇḍholī ; AJ. ; मेंढोली ..	SE ; 3-0	1·9 ; 505 ; 91 ; 503.	Ajra 3-0
Meṭaṅge ; KG , मेटगे	S ; 19 0	1·3 ; 554 ; 109 ; 517.	Kapashi 4-0
Mhākave : KG. ; म्हाकवे ..	SW ; 9-0	3·9 ; 2045 ; 385 ; 1959.	Kurli 2-0
Mhālasavaḍe ; SHW. ; म्हाळसवडे	W ; 4-4	4·2 ; 413 ; 84 ; 413.	Malkapur 4-0
Mhālasavaḍe ; KV. ; म्हाळसवडे ..	W ; 10-0	2·1 ; 866 ; 155 ; 821.	Kolhapur 14-0
Mhāluṅge , BVD. ; म्हाळुंगे ..	E ; 17-2	0·7 ; 87 ; 17 ; 85.	Kasaba Kale. 5-0
Mhālunge T. Boragāñv ; PN. : म्हाळुंगे तर्फ बोरगांव ..	S ; 7-0	0·5 ; 431 ; 83 ; 442.	Panahala Kasaba. 8-0
Mhālunge T. Ṭhane ; PN. ; म्हाळुंगे तर्फ ठाणें ..	NW ; 2 0	0·7 ; 114 ; 31 ; 114.	Panhala Kasaba. 2-0
Mhāravāḍī ; Bhd. ; म्हारवाडी ..	W , 2-0	0·5 ; 238 ; 47 ; 233.	Gargoti 3-0
Mhāruḷ ; KV. ; म्हारुळ ..	W ; 12-0	1·2 ; 1065 ; 183 ; 754.	Kolhapur 12-0
Mhāsaraṅg ; BHD. ; म्हासरंग .	SW ; 13-0	4·6 ; 685 , 128 ; 678.	Shengaon 13-0
Mhasave ; BHD. ; म्हसवे ..	NW ; 1-0	1·7 ; 1300 ; 241 ; 1205.	Gargoti 2-0
Mhāsūrlī ; RDN. ; म्हासूर्ली ..	N ; 18-0	7·3 ; 1406 , 288 ; 1404.	Bavada 10-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	41-0	Malkapur	Fri.	12-0	--	9-0	rv.	8tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	10-0	--	1-4	str.	tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	29-0	Bdogaon	Wed.	10-0	--	13-0	rv.	
Kolhapur	11-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat	2-0	—	1 0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	10-0	Tisangi Salvan.	Fri.	1-0			rv.	
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	4-0	-	5 0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Uttur	Sat.	4-0	-	1 0	w	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	44-0	Ajra	Fri	4-0	Ajra	3-0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	61-0	Phonda	Mon.	6 0	Phonda	6 0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Kolhapur	48-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	10-0	-	1-0	rv., c.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	50-0	Ajra	Fri.	6 0	-	2-0	rv.	Dahikala fr. (day not fixed in Ct).; tl.
Hukkeri	45-0	Ajra	Fri.	3 0	Ajra	3 0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Kapashi	Mon	4 0		3-0	rv	Ambabai fr. (Mg).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	21 0	Local	Sun.		-	5 0	w	Sl (pr); cs.; 5tl.; mq. gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	32-0	Malkapur	Fri.	4 0	Malkapur	5 0	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	14-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-4	-	4 0	W.	Sl (pr); cs. (c).; 5tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	17-0	Tisangi Salavan.	Fri.	2-0	--	2-2	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	4-0	-	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	12-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	2-0	Panhala	2-0	W.	Sl (pr), dg.
Kolhapur	34-0	Shengaon	Thu.	2-0	--	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	12-0	Sangrul	Thu.	2-0	Koparde	1 0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 2tl. 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	7 0	Daewadi	3-0	w	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; M.
Kolhapur	29-0	Cargoti	Wed.	2-0	–	1-0	rv	Sl (pr)., pvt.; cs.; 2tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	20-0	Dhamod	Sat.	5-0	Kale	12-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Kedarlingdev fr. (in April each year).; tl.; mq.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Minacē ; HK. ; मिणचें ..	NW ; 8-0	4·6 ; 2075 ; 392 ; 1871.	Vadgaon Kasaba. 6-0
Minacē Bk. ; BHD. ; मिणचें बु..	NW : 5 0	4·0 ; 955 ; 194 ; 951.	Gargoti 5-0
Minacē Kh. ; BHD. ; मिणचें खुर्द	SW ; 3-0	0·7 ; 604 . 126 ; 540.	Gargoti 4-0
Moghardc ; RDN. ; मोघर्डे ..	E ; 4 0	0·7 ; 284 : 49 ; 258 ;	Murgud 11-0
Mohadc ; RDN. ; मोहडे ..	NE ; 16-0	0·9 ; 419 ; 99 ; 449	Kolhapur 17-0
Mohare ; PN. ; मोहरे ..	NE ; 8 0	2·3 · 1515 ; 309 , 1317.	Kodoli Kasaba. 2-4
Molavade : SHW. ; मोळवडे ..	N ; 1 4	1 2 ; 461 ; 77 , 443.	Malkapur 3-0
Monde ; BVD. ; मोंडे ..	N ; 8 0	4 3 , 362 : 75 ; 290.	Gagan Bavada. 7-0
Morevāḍī ; BHD. ; मोरेवाडी ..	SW ; 2 0	0·5 ; 397 : 76 ; 367.	Gargoti 4-0
Mosum ; SHW. ; मोसुम .	W ; 15 4	3·8 ; 489 ; 77 ; 64.	Malkapur 13-0
Motāivāḍī ; PN. : मोताईवाडी ..	SW . 14-0	0·3 ; 140 ; 31 ; 137.	Panhala Kasaba. 12-0
Mudal ; BHD ; मुदाळ ..	N ; 7-0	1·3 ; 1120 ; 198 ; 1014.	Murgud 3-0
Muḍasiṅgī ; HK ; मुडसिंगी .	W ; 5 0	2·0 ; 1054 ; 205 ; 992	Shahupuri 10-0
Muḍasiṅgī ; KV. ; मुडसिंगी ..	E ; 5-4	5 4 ; 2973 ; 582 , 2401.	Local
Mugalī ; KG. : मुगळी ..	S , 19-0	1·5 : 606 ; 212 : 601.	Kapashi 2-0
Mugalī ; GGJ. ; मुगळी ..	E ; 5-0	2·4 , 1006 , 348 : 1677.	Nool Kasaba 4-0
Mumevāḍī ; AJ. ; मुमेवाडी .	E ; 13-0	1·7 : 996 ; 100 ; 974.	Uttur 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	15-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	6-0	Local	0-2	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 3cs. (3c).; Hajrat Pir Ur. (Srn).; 5tl.; 2mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	32-0	Gargoti	Wed	5-0	Gargoti	5-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	32-0	Gargoti	Wed	4-0	Gargoti	3-0	str..	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl
Kolhapur	22-0	Sarawade Radhanagari.	Fri.	5-0	Sata	5-0	rv.	rv.; w. 2tl.
Kolhapur	17-0	Gholawade	Mon.	3-0	Kaulav	1-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.
Kolhapur	21-0	Kodoli Karaha.	Thu.	2-4	Malegaon	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Bhairav fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 3tl. gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	3-0	Shahuwadi	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	43-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	7-0	Asbas	1-0	w.	2tl
Kolhapur	20-0	Gargoti	Wed	4-0		2-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	32-0	Malkapur	Fri.	13-0		14-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	19-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	0-2	Bajar Bhogaon.	0-4	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	26-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0		0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Rukadi	2-0	Rukadi	Thu.	2-0	Local	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c); Maruti fr. and Pir Ur. (Ct. Vad. 2).; 5tl.; mq.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Gandhi nagar	1-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0		0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; fr. (once in three years on Mg. Sud. 15).; 6tl.; 2db.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	36-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. (in Phg).; 2tl.
Hukkeri Road.	25-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	4-0		1-0	w., rv., str.	2 Sl (2pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Dattajayanti fr. (Srn Vad 5).; Gokul Astami fr. (Srn. Vad 8).; 4tl. gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Uttur	Sat.	2-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari fr. (Mg. Vad. 5).; tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Muṅguravāḍī ; GGJ. ; मुंगुरवाडी ..	SE ; 11-0	0·8 ; 819 ; 152 ; 723.	Nesari 5-0
Muragud ; KG. ; मुरगुड ..	SE ; 27-0	4·5 ; 5637 ; 1061 ; 3549	Local.
Murude ; AJ. ; मुरुडे ..	S ; 1-6	2·0 ; 479 ; 87 ; 471.	Ajra 2-0
Murukṭe ; BHD. ; मुरुक्टे ..	S ; 0-0	1·9 ; 1324 ; 234 ; 339.	Uttur 7-0
Musalavāḍī ; RDN. ; मुसळवाडी	NE ; 10-4	0·7 ; 207 ; 45 ; 207.	Kolhapur 21-0
Muṭakalavāḍī ; SHW. ; मुटकलवाडी	NW ; 4-4	0·4 ; 86 ; 19 ; 80.	Malkapur 2-0
Muṭakeśvar ; BVD. ; मुटकेश्वर ..	E ; 19-0	0·4 ; 265 ; 45 ; 262.	Kasaba Kale. 2-4
Mutnal ; GGJ. ; मुत्नाळ ..	NE. 6-4	1·6 ; 2120 ; 361 ; 1807.	Local.
Nādhavaḍe ; BHD. ; नाधवडे ..	N. 5-0	1·9 ; 1324 ; 234 ; 1240.	Gargoti 7-0
Nādhavaḍe ; BVD. ; नाधवडे ..	W ; 17-0	9·3 ; 12681 ; 468 ; 2289.	Local.
Nāganavāḍī ; BHD. ; नागनवाडी	E ; 8-0	1·1 ; 305 ; 60 ; 296.	Uttur 5-4
Nāgāṅv ; HK. ; नागांव ..	NW ; 9-0	2·8 ; 2180 ; 451 ; 1935.	Kolhapur 6-0
Nāgāṅv ; KV. ; नागांव ..	SE ; 12-4	1·0 ; 695 ; 136 ; 686	Kolhapur 14-0
Nāgaragāṅv ; BHD. ; नागरगांव ..	E. 6-0	1·5 ; 471 ; 86 ; 471.	Gargoti 3-0
Nandagāṅv ; KV. ; नंदगांव ..	S ; 12-0	2·3 , 1567 ; 316 ; 1469.	Karvir 14-0
Nāndagāṅv ; SHW. ; नांदगांव ..	S ; 12-0	1·7 ; 409 ; 73 ; 400.	Bhogaon 4-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	20-0	Daddi	Mon.	4-0		5 0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Bhairav dev fr. (Mg. Sud 5).; Vithoba fr. (Ct. Sud 11).; 4tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	38-0	Local.	Tue.		Local	0-1		3Sl (2pr,m).; 2cs.; fr. (An. Sud 9).; 9tl.; M; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib. 4dp.
Hukkeri Road.	44-0	Ajra	Fri.	2 0	Ajra	1 4	tl.	Sl (pr).; tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	36-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	3-0	Gargoti	7-0	cl.	Sl (pr).: 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	21-0	Dhamod	Sat.	5-0	Ajmai Varavade.	1 2	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	31 0	Malkapur	Fri.	2-0	Malkapur	3 0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	14-4	Kasaba Kale.	Sat.	2-4	Local		rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	24-0	Sankeshwar	Fri	3 0		0 5	w., str.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; fr. (Ct. Vad 12 and Vsk Sud 3 & Vsk. Vad 5); 3tl; M.; mq.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Sarwade	Fri.	3 0	Irgaon	2 0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	70-0	Tarale	Tue	4-0		4 0	w., rv., t.	3Sl (2pr, m).; fr. (Mg. Vad 30).; 10tl.; mq.; 3dp. village medical centre.
Kolhapur	40-0	Pimpalgaon	Tue	2-0	Uttur	5 4	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg).; tl.
Rukadi	4-0	Kolhapur	Mon.	6-0		1 4	w., (o)	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2o).; Khanai fr. (in Sravan month).; Jain Shwetamber fr. (in Bhadrapad month).; 4tl.; mq. 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	14-0	Ispurli	Fri.	2-0		1 4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (o).; Virobadev fr. (once in three years on Phg. Vad 5).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	3-0	Gargoti	5-0	str., t.	2 Sl (2pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	14-4	Khebawade	Tue.	1-4		2 0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	24-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	4-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Gangobadev fr. (Vsk. Sud 3); tl; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Nandanavāḍ ; GGJ. ; नांदनवाड ..	NW ; 9-0	2·5 ; 904 ; 161 ; 837.	Halkarni 2-0
Nāndanī ; SL. : नांदनी ..	E : 7 0	6·5 ; 5099 ; 1108 ; 4450.	Local.
Nāndārī ; SHW. ; नांदारी ..	S ; 10-0	2·3 ; 511 ; 98 ; 507.	Bhogaon 3-0
Nandavāḷ ; KV. ; नंदवाळ ..	SE ; 7 0	1·0 ; 594 ; 127 ; 594.	Kolhapur 7-4
Nāndolī ; BHD. ; नांदोली ..	S ; 10-0	1·2 ; 306 ; 80 ; 392.	Shengaon 7-0
Nandyāḷ ; KG. ; नंद्याळ ..	S ; 19-2	2·5 ; 751 ; 180 ; 672.	Kapashi 2-4
Nānganūr ; GGJ. ; नांगनूर ..	W ; 15 0	1·0, 1293 ; 232 ; 1281.	Sankeshwar 1-4
Nānīvaḍe ; BVD. ; नानीवडे ..	W ; 15-0	4·5, 1156 ; 102 ; 1065.	Kelavali 2-0
Nānivaḷe ; RDN., नानिवळे ..	E. 15 0	10·3 ; 437 ; 94 ; 405.	Gargoti 27 0
Naṇundre ; PN., नणुंद्रे ..	SW ; 9-0	0·8 ; 550 ; 108 ; 525.	Panhala Kasaba. 9-0
Napaṇē ; BVD. ; नापणें ..	W ; 13 0	3·0 ; 682 ; 134 ; 639.	Kolisare 5 0
Narande ; HK. ; नरंदे ..	NE ; 5 4	5·5 ; 2483 ; 443 . 2227	Kumbhoj 3 0
Naratavaḍe ; RDN. ; नरतवडे ..	E ; 7 0	1 8 ; 1285 ; 251 1162.	Murgud 9-0
Naravelī ; BVD. ; नरवेली ..	S ; 4 0	2·8 ; 123 ; 36, 122.	Gagan Bavada. 4 0
Narevāḍī ; GGJ. ; नरेवाडी ..	NW ; 10-0	2·0, 1217 ; 220 ; 1040.	Halkarni 4 0
Naukuḍ ; GGJ. ; नौकुड ..	SE ; 7-0	2·4 ; 946 ; 174 ; 883.	Halkarni 4-0
Navale ; BHD. ; नवले ..	S ; 12-0	2·0 ; 356 ; 73 ; 351.	Shengaon 10-0
Nāvaḷe ; BVD. ; नावळे ..	NE ; 10-0	6·0 ; 648 ; 125 ; 618.	Karul 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information.
Hukkeri Road. 22-0	Sankeshwar; Fri 7-0	2 0	str	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 5-0	Local. Wed.	Local.	w., rv.	2 Sl (2pr). pyt.; cs. (2c). fr. (Third or fourth Sunday in Srn.).; 6tl.; 2M.; 5mq.; 3gym.; 3lib.
Kolhapur 22-0	Bhogaon Wed. 3-0	Bhogaon 3 0	rv., str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 7-4	Kandgaon Tue 1-0	Kandgaon [illegible]-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Vithoba fr. 2tl.; (Asd. Sud 11).; 2gym.
Kolhapur 42-0	Kadgaon Fri. 2 0	Kadgaon 1 0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 37-0	Kapashi Mon. 2-4	Kapshi 2 0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhaveshwar fr. (in Phalgun).; 3tl. ch.
Hukkeri Road. 20-0	Sankeshwar Fri. 1 4	Sankeshwar 1 4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Ram fr. (Ct. Sud 9).; 6tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 51-0	Kharepatan Tue. 10-0	Kharepatan 9 0	w., rv.	2Sl (pr, m).; fr. (Kt. Sud 15 , Phg. Sud 15).; 4tl.;
Kolhapur 45-0	Radhanagari. Sun 5-0	Radhanagari. 15 0	rv	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kolhapur 10-0	Bajar Bhogaon. Wed. 5 4	Kololi 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 14-4	Kasaba Kale. Sat. 2-4	7 0	w	2Sl (pr, m).; fr. (Kt. Sud 15).; 3tl.
Hatkanangale. 6-0	Vadgaon Kasaba. Mon 6-0	1 4	W.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; cs. (mis).; fr. (Mg. Sud 5).; 12tl.; mq., 8gym.; ch.; Coh.
Kolhapur 29-0	Saravade Fri 1 0	0 2	rv.	3Sl (pr. m, h).; fr. (Mg. Vad 1).; 4tl.; 2gym.; ch., lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 34-0	Gagan Bavada Thu 4 0	Gagan Bavada. 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road. 24-0	Halkarni Wed. 4 0	3-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; ch.; lib.
Malkapur 1-0	Halkarni Wed. 4 0	Halkarni 5-0	w	Sl (pr).; Chaloba dev fr. (Mg. Vad 4).; tl.
Kolhapur 44-0	Kadgaon Fri. 3-0	3 0	t.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 44-0	Gagan Bavada. Thu 4-0	7 0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; fr. (An. Sud 10) 4tl.; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Nāvalī ; PN. ; नावळी	N ; 1-4	1·2 ; 572 ; 117 ; 529.	Panhala Kasaba. 3-0
Nebāpūr ; PN. ; नेबापूर	E ; 0 4	0·4 513 ; 104 ; 310.	Panhala Kasba. 1-0
Nej ; HK. ; नेज	N ; 3-4	3·7 ; 1738 ; 336 ; 1611.	Kumbhoj 2-0
Nerle ; BVD. ; नेर्ले	N ; 15-0	2·2 ; 740 ; 145 ; 668.	Kharepatan 15-0
Nerle ; SHW. ; नेर्ले	S ; 9-0	1·7 ; 409 ; 73 ; 820.	Kokrud 1-0
Nerlī ; KV. ; नेर्ली	SE ; 8-0	3·3 ; 1128 ; 225 ; 780.	Kolhapur 8-0
Nesarī Kasaba ; GOJ. ; नेसरी कसबा	S ; 13 0	2·2 ; 2525 ; 495 ; 1653.	Local
Nidhorī ; KG. ; निढोरी	W. 25-0	2·1 ; 952 ; 185 ; 729.	Murgud 0-4
Nigave Dumālā ; KV. ; निगवे दुमाला	NW. 5-0	2·5 ; 2254 ; 432 ; 1637.	Karvir 4-0
Nigave Khālsā ; ; KV. ; निगवे खालसा	S. 16 0	3·3 ; 2133 ; 391 ; 1732.	Kolhapur 16-0
Nigundage ; AJ. ; निगुंडगे	E ; 11-0	1·2 ; 895 ; 175 ; 861.	Mahagaon 2-0
Nilajī ; GOJ. ; निलजी	E ; 6 0	1·5 ; 918 ; 168 ; 813.	Mutnal 1-0
Nilapaṇ ; BHD ; निळपण	N ; 4-0	0 8 ; 968 ; 169 ; 925.	Gargoti 4-0
Nile ; SHW. ; निळे	N ; 4-0	1·8 ; 505, 101 ; 303.	Malkapur 3-0
Nim-Arule ; BVD. ; निम-अरुळे	NW ; 10-0	1·6 ; 259 ; 49 ; 213.	Achirne 6 0
Nimaśiragāṁv Dumālā ; SL. ; निमशिरगांव दुमाला	NW.	1·0 ; 550 ; 95 ; 540.	Chibari 2-4

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar: Bazar Day; Distance			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	15-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	3-0		0-1	pl.	Sl (pr).; fr. (on first Sunday after Ct. Sud 15).; tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	1-0		0-1	W.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; 2mq.
Hatkan- angale.	3-0	Hatkanangale.	Tue.	3-0	Local.	0-1	w.	Sl (pr)., cs. (mis).; Urus (Ct. Sud 2).; 6tl.; mq., dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	48-0	Gagan Bavada.		–	Bavada	15-0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	30-0	Kokrud	Wed.	1-0	Malkapur	9-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	8-0		2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; mq.; 3gym.; dp.
Belgaum	25-0	Bazar	Thu.		Local		w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Ur. (Phg. Vad 8).; 15tl.; M.; 2mq.; 2dg.; dh.; gym. 3lib.; 4dp.; Ch.
Kolhapur	36-0	Murgud	Tue.	0-4		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr); cs. (c).; Bhairi dev fr. (in Mg.); 6tl., dh 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	5-0	Karvir	Sun.	4-0		2-0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m).; cs. (c)., Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 4tl.; mq.; 2gym.; lib.;
Kolhapur	16-0	Thikpurli	Wed.	1-4			t	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt.; 2cs.; 10tl.; mq.; dg.; 5gym.; ch.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	30-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	2-0		3-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Basaveshwar fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; 6tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	22-0	Sankeshwar	Fri.	4-0		0-1	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Hanuman dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 6tl.; m.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	4-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	32-0	Malkapur	Fri.	3-0	Local		rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0	Bavada	10-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl
Local	1-4	Jaysingpur	Sun.	4-4		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population	Post Office; Distance.
Nimaśiragāṅv Khalsa; SL.; निमशिरगांव खालसा	NW; 9-0	2·4; 1317; 236; 1265.	Chipari 2-4
Niṇap; BHD.; निण्णप	W; 8-0	5·3; 1257; 230; 1200.	Gargoti 6-0
Niṭavaḍe; KV.; निटवडे	W; 8-0	0·5; 209; 35; 207.	Karvir 6-0
Nitavaḍe; BHD.; नितवडे	S; 8-0	1·5; 369; 60; 361.	Shengaon 0-0
Nivaḍe; BVD.; निवडे	E; 15-5	1·0; 336; 70; 278.	Kasaba Kale. 7-0
Nivaḍe; PN.; निवडे	W; 12-0	1·3; 604; 95; 576.	Panhala Kasaba. 21-0
Nivale; SHW.; निवळे	N; 19-0	5·4; 330; 75; 327.	Arale 5-0
Nūl Kasaba; GDJ.; नूल कसबा	SE; 8-0	5·6; 3338; 574; 2939.	Local.
Olavaṇ; RDN.; ओलवण	W; 18-0	11·1; 872; 197; 726.	Murgud 33-0
Pācarḍe; BHD.; पाचर्डे	W; 8-4	0·8; 300; 60; 298.	Shengaon 4-0
Paḍakhambe BHD.; पडखंबे	S; 9-0	3·4; 550; 101; 550.	Gargoti 9-0
Paḍal; PN; पडळ	S; 6-0	2·5; 1564; 301; 1291.	Panhala Kasaba. 6-0
Pāḍalī; HK.; पाडळी	W; 15-0	1·0; 1277; 222; 1253.	Vadgaon Kasaba. 5-0
Paḍalī; RDN.; पडळी	NW; 2-0	4·6; 881; 178; 750.	Murgud; 20-0
Pāḍalī Bk.; KV.; पाडळी बु।।	NE; 5-0	1·7; 789; 128; 639.	Kolhapur 5-0
Pāḍalī Kh.; KV.; पाडळी खुर्द	W; 5-0	2·9; 1549; 277; 1405.	Kolhapur 6-0
Paḍasālī; PN.; पडसाळी	W; 18-0	0·6; 107; 27; 104.	Panhala Kasaba. 24-0
Paḍasālī; RDN.; पडसाळी	NW; 9-0	7·2; 654; 134; 653.	Bavada 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day, Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Jaysingpur	4-4	Jaysingpur	Sun.	4-4		1-0	w.	cs. (c).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	30-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	1-0			rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; cs.; fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	48-0	Padal	Mon.	3-0		3-0	rv	Pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	39-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	1-0	Kadgaon	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	10-0	Tisangi (Salvan).	Fri.	0-4			rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	21-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	2-4	Bajar Bhogaon.	2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.
Kolhapur	49-0	Arale	Sat.	5-0	Nile	10-0	tr.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	23-0	Local	Sat.			2-4	w.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; Maruti fr. (Ct. Sud 5).; 12tl.; 2M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch. lib.; 4dp.
Kolhapur	48-0	Radhanagari	Sun.	18-0	Local		W	Sl (pr).; 5tl.; dh.
Kolhapur	39-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	2-0		0-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	42-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	5-0	Karadwadi	3-0	cl	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	0-0	Local.	Mon.		Parle	1-0	rv	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Bhairav fr. (Ct. Vad 8).; 6tl.; mq.; 4gym.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	15-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	5-0		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Hajrat Pir Urus (on the first Thursday after Ct Sud 15)., 3tl; 2mq.; dg.; 2gym; ch.
Kolhapur	32-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	3-4	Radhanagari.	2-0	rv	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.;
Kolhapur	5-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	5-0		1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 4tl.; mq.; 2gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0		1-2	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; fr. (in the month of Mg).; tl; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	34-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	14-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	12-0	rv., str	tl.
Kolhapur	40-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	7-0		9-0	rv., n.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pāl ; BHD. ; पाल ..	E ; 3–0	1·3 ; 614 ; 121 ; 618.	Gargoti 2-0
Pāl ; SHW. ; पाल ..	S ; 16–0	0·0 ; 124 ; 21 ; 124.	Bhogaon 10–0
Pāl Bk. ; RDN. पाल बु॥ ..	N ; 17–0	1·0 ; 132 ; 28 ; 131.	Kolhapur 21–0
Pāl Kh. ; RDN. पाल खुर्द ..	N ; 18–0	0·8 ; 78 ; 16 ; 78.	Kolhapur 21–0
Palsambe ; BVD. पळसंबे ..	....	3·4 ; 104 , 44 ; 188.	Gagan Bavada. 6–0
Pa|asavade ; SHW. पळसवडे ..	NE ; 11–0	1·5 ; 171 ; 33 ; 160.	Charan 3–0
Pa|aśivanē ; BHD. पळशिवणे ..	E ; 4–0	2·0 ; 677 ; 110 ; 674.	Gargoti 5-0
Pā|ecāhuḍā ; BHD. ; पाळेचा हुडा	NW ; 14–0	5·2 ; 518 ; 92 ; 511.	Shongaon 14–0
Pā|evāḍī ; BHD. ; पाळेवाडी ..	W ; 5-0	0·3 ; 107 ; 35 ; 107.	Gargoti 4–0
Pāñcagāṅv : KV. ; पांचगांव ..	S ; 3–0	3·3 ; 1220 : 245 ; 915.	Kolhapur 8–0
Pāñcavaḍe : BHD. ; पांचवडे ..	NW : 4–0	1·3 ; 626 : 124 ; 546.	Gargoti 4-0
Paṇḍevāḍī ; RDN. ; पंडेवाडी ..	E · 5–0	0·7 : 632 ; 118 ; 605.	Gargoti 10–0
Paṅḍivare ; BHD. ; पांडिवरे .	NW ; 6-0	0·7 , 288 ; 53 ; 288.	Gargoti 6-0
Pāṅgire ; BHD. ; पांगिरे .	E : 8-0	1·7 ; 809 ; 163 ; 772.	Kapashi 0–0
Panhāḷā Kasabā ; PN. : पन्हाळा कसबा ..	HQ ;	1·9 ; 2573 ; 535 ; 773.	Local
Paṇore ; PN. ; पणोरे ..	SW : 21–0	3·8 ; 693 ; 142 ; 687.	Kale Kasaba. 12-0
Paṇorī ; RDN. : पणोरी ..	E ; 5–0	2·3 ; 636 , 124 ; 630.	Murgud 12–0
Paṇundre ; SHW. ; पणुंद्रे ..	W ; 4–0	6·3 ; 1128 ; 203 ; 1124.	Malkapur 4-0
Panutre ; PN. ; पणुत्रे .	SW ; 14–0	2·1 : 717 ; 148 ; 714.	Kale Kasaba. 7-0
Pāragāṅv ; HK. ; पारगांव ..	NW ; 16–0	7·3 ; 4383 ; 826 ; 2746.	Local

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	31–0	Gargoti	Wed.	2–0	Gargoti	3-2	cl.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	32–0	Bhogaon	Wed.	10–0		8–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	21–0	Dhamod	Sat.	6–0	Parite	9–0	n.	tl.
Kolhapur	21-0	Dhamod	Sat.	6–0	Parite	9-0	n.	tl.
Kolhapur	28–0	Local.	Tue.	0–4		2–0	rv.	Ling fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 2tl.; Mahadev Temple; famous for sculpture and carving.
Kolhapur	43-0	Charan	Thu.	3–0	Kokrud	6–0	rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	31–0	Gargoti	Wed.	5–0		0–0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling fr. (Mg. Vad 5–6).; 2fr.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	47–0	Kadgaon	Fri.	8–0	Darewadi	2–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	34–0	Gargoti	Wed.	4–0	Gargoti	5–0	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	3–0	Kolhapur	Sun.	3-0		2-0	W., w.	Sl (pr).; 3cs.; 3tl.; M.; 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gargoti	Wed.	4-0		3-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Sarawade	Fri.	5–0		1–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 9).; tl.; gym
Kolhapur	30–0	Saravade	Fri.	5–0	Gargoti	6–0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	40–0	Pimpalgaon	Tue.	3-0	Kapashi	0-0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Local.	Sun.		Local		w.	6Sl (5pr, h).; cs.; Sadhu Khatal Ur (in April).; 6tl.; M.; 3mq.; 3dg.; dh.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.; Cch.; old fort.
Kolhapur	24–0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	12-0	Kale	12-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	31–0	Radha-nagari.	Sun.	4-0	Gaishi	3–0	rv., cl.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	31-0	Malkapur	Fri.	4–0	Malkapur	4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Shri Jagai devi fr. (Phg. Vad 5).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	19–0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	7–0	Kale	4–4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	18–0	Local	Tue.		Pargaon	0-6	w., rv	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5cs. (5c).; fr. (Ct. Sud 5).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib. dp.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Parakhandale; PN.; परखंदळे ..	SW; 9-0	2·2; 906; 159; 805.	Kale Kasaba. 2-0
Parale Māṇ; SHW.; परळे माण	W; 3-0	1·2; 433; 95; 244.	Malkapur 2-0
Parale Ninăī; SHW.; परळे निनाई	NW; 11-0	7·4; 769; 181; 750.	Malkapur 7-0
Paralī; SHW.; परळी ..	S; 11-0	3·9; 719; 144; 716.	Bhogaon 5-0
Pāranolī; AJ.; पारनोली ..	W; 4-0	3·5; 1157; 209; 1164.	Ajra 3-0
Pārapolī; AJ.; पारपोली ..	W; 13-0	5·5; 470; 85; 451.	Ajra 13-0
Pārevāḍī; AJ.; पारेवाडी ..	E; 2-0	0·8; 92; 15; 90.	Ajra 2-0
Parite; KV.; परिते ..	W; 15-0	2·9; 1364; 263; 1326.	Rashivade 1-0
Parivaṇe; SHW.; परिवणे ..	W; 15-0	2·2; 188; 34; 188.	Amba 13-0
Parkhandale; SHW.; परखंदळे ..	SE; 7-0	2·1; 781; 108; 733.	Bambavade 3-0
Pāsārḍe; KV.; पासार्डे ..	W; 14-0	2·3; 681; 125; 658.	Kolhapur 13-0
Pāṭagāṅv; BHD.; पाटगांव ..	W; 21-0	4·1; 1009; 203; 799.	Shengaon 18-0
Paṭaṇe; SHW.; पाटणे ..	E; 6-4	1·1; 800; 147; 701.	Bambavade 2-0
Pāṭa Panhāḷā; RDN.; पाट पन्हाळा	S; 4-0	4·0; 208; 43; 208.	Murgud 23-0
Pāṭapanhāḷā; PN.; पाट पन्हाळा	W; 11-0	3·9; 734; 164; 728.	Kale Kasaba.
Pāṭekaravāḍī; KV.; पाटेकर वाडी	W; 15-0	0·3; 258; 38; 252.	Kolhapur 14-0
Paṭṭan Koḍolī; HK.; पट्टन कोडोली	SE; 10-0	8·3; 5993; 1117; 5170.	Local
Peṇḍakhale; SHW; पेंडखळे ..	S; 14-0	4·1; 621; 132; 618.	Bhogaon 5-0
Perīḍ; SHW.; पेरीड ..	N; 2-4	3·2; 1047; 172; 975.	Malkapur 1-0
Peṭhevāḍī; AJ.; पेठेवाडी ..	E; 2-4	0·5; 30; 4; 24.	Nesari 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	2-0	Kale	2-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	24-0	Malkapur	Fri.	2-0	Malkapur	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	36-0	Malkapur	Fri.	7-0		3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ninaidevi fr. (Phg. Vad 6).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	24-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	5-0		4-0	str.	3tl.
Hukkeri Road.	47-0	Ajra	Fri.	3-0	Ajra	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling dev fr. (in February). 4tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	49-0	Ajra	Fri.	13-0		2-4	cl.	Dshikala fr. (Mg. Sud 5).; 3tl.
Hukkeri Road.	42-0	Ajra	Fri.	2-0	Ajra	2-0	rv.	tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	15-0	Rashivade	Tue.	1-0		3-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 4tl.; 2gym. ch.
Kolhapur	43-0	Malkapur	Fri	14-0		7-0	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	29-0	Bambavade	Thu.	3-0		3-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	13-0	Sangrul	Thu.	3-0		4-0	n. spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	52-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	12-0	Local		w., rv.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; Shri Mouni Maharaj (Mg. Sud 7).; 5tl.; M.
Kolhapur	22-0	Malkapur	Fri.	10-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	33-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	3-0	Radhanagari.	4-0	br., cl.	tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	4-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	1-4	rv., w.	2Sl (pr, h).; tl.
Kolhapur	14-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	3-0		3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; gym.
Hatkanangale	5-0	Local	Sun. Wed.		Local		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (o).; fr (in Asn.).; 3tl.; M.; mq. 2gym.; ch.; 0dp.; cch.
Kolhapur	28-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	9-0		5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	31-0	Malkapur	Fri.	1-0	Malkapur	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Gorakhnath fr. (Ct. Vad 11).; 3tl.; 3gym.; lib.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	Ajra	2-4	rv.	

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Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Phaṇasavāḍi; BHD.; फणसवाडी	S; 1-4	1·2; 608; 108; 352.	Gargoti 1-0
Pharāle; ; RDN.; फराळे ..	S; 5-0	3·3; 622, 108; 585.	Gargoti; 24-0
Phaye; BHD.; फये ..	W; 0-0	4·9; 607; 120; 607.	Gargoti 9-0
Phejīvaḍe; RDN.; फेजीवडे ..	W; 3-0	41·7; 2872; 801; 727.	Murgud 20-0
Pimpalagāṅv; BHD.; पिंपळगांव	W; 0-0	2·5; 1412; 205; 1285.	Uttur 4-0
Pimpalagāṅv Bk.; KG.; पिंपळगांव बु.।। ..	SW: 12-0	1·8; 070; 200; 929.	Kurli 7-0
Pimpalagāṅv Kh.; KG.; पिंपळगांव खुर्द	W: 2-0	2·8; 1435; 268; 1340.	Kagal 2-0
Pimpale T. Sātave; PN.; पिंपळे तर्फ सातवे	E; 2-0	1·2; 416; 51; 399.	Panhala Kasaba. 2-0
Pimpale T. Thāṇe; PN.; पिंपळे तर्फ ठाणे	SW, 3-0	1·0; 680; 100; 044.	Panhala Kasaba. 5-0
Pirācīvaḍī; KG.; पिराची वाडी ..	W; 12-0	0·5; 673; 135; 651.	Kurli 11-0
Piral; RDN.; पिरळ ..	NE; 1-2	2·9; 1025; 204; 970.	Murgud 20-0
Pisātrī; PN.; पिसात्री ..	W; 12-0	2·4; 304; 60; 332.	Panhala Kasaba. 16-0
Piśavī; SHW.; पिशवी ..	SE; 9-0	4·4; 1625; 330; 1434.	Bambavade 3-0
Pohālavāḍī; PN.; पोहाळ वाडी ..	S; 14-0	3·6; 552; 112; 543.	Panhala Kasaba. 12-0
Pohāle T. Ālate; PN.; पोहाळे तर्फ आळते	E; 9-0	2·5; 1126; 189; 1072.	Kolhapur 5-4

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	32-0	Gargoti	Wed.	1-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (An. Sud 1 to 10 and Mg. Vad 9).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	29-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	2-4	Radhanagari.	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 6tl.
Kolhapur	39-0	Shengaon	Thu.	0-0	Gargoti	9-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	33-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	1-0	Local		rv., n. w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	40-0	Local	Tue.	1-0	Uttur	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Kedarling fr. (Mg).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur	22-0	Mhakve	Sun.	4-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Ramlingdev fr. (in Mg. Vad first Sunday).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	12-0	Kagal	Mon.	1-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Shri Basaweshwar fr. (Vsk. Vad 3); 5tl.; mq.; gym.
Kolhapur	11-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	2-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	15-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	5-0	Kotoli	2-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Kaleshwar fr. (Vsk. Sud 12).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	15-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0	Shelewadi	4-0	w., (o)	Sl (pr).; cs. (sp).; 3tl.; mq., gym.
Kolhapur	32-0	Radhanagari.	Sun.	1-0	Radhanagari	1-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	24-0	Bajar Bhogaon	Wed.	4-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	6-0	rv.	cs. (mis).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	23-0	Bambavade	Thu	3-0	Bambavade	3-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Shri Pisai devi fr. (Pbg. Vad 5).; 6tl.; 3gym.
Kolhapur	16-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	1-4		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	6-4	Kolhapur	Sun.	5-4		3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; M.; 2gym. ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pohāle T. Boragāṅv ; PN. ; पोहाळे तर्फ बोरगांव ..	SW ; 12-0	1·5 ; 766 ; 149 ; 742.	Panhala Kasaba. 10-0
Pokhale ; PN. ; पोखले ..	NE ; 7-0	1·5 ; 700 ; 142 ; 653.	Kodoli Kasaba. 2-4
Polagāṅv ; AJ. ; पोळगांव ..	S ; 4-0	1·9 ; 610 ; 120 ; 561.	Ajra 5-0
Pombare ; PN. ; पोंबरे ..	W ; 12-0	4·8 ; 300 ; 55 ; 300.	Panhala Kasaba. 17-0
Porle T. Boragāṅv ; PN. ; पोर्ले तर्फ बोरगांव ..	SW ; 14-4	1·2 ; 512 ; 10 ; 507.	Panhala Kasaba. 1-0
Porle T. Thāṇe ; PN. ; पोर्ले तर्फ ठाणें ..	S ; 6 0	3·6 ; 2324 ; 423 ; 1981.	Panhala Kasaba. 6 0
Pośratavāḍī ; AJ. ; पोश्रात वाडी.	E ; 9-0	1·0 ; 173 ; 37 ; 171.	Nesari 2-0
Pū ; BHD. ; पू ..	S ; 2 0	3·4 ; 1254 ; 226 ; 1216.	Gargoti 2-0
Punāḷ ; PN. ; पुनाळ ..	SW ; 7-0	1·6 ; 1170 ; 225 ; 908.	Kale Kasaba. 2-4
Puṅgāṅv ; RDN. ; पुंगाव ..	N ; 14 0	1·7 ; 1051 ; 183 ; 1037.	Kolhapur 18-0
Pusārle ; SHW. ; पुसार्ले ..	NW ; 9 0	2·5 ; 347 ; 80 ; 325.	Malkapur 7-0
Puśire ; PN. ; पुशिरे ..	SW , 7-4	0·6 ; 463 ; 82 ; 400.	Panhala Kasaba. 8-0
Rādhānagarī ; RDN. ; राधानगरी.	HQ ;	7·2 ; 3207 ; 658 ; 1817.	Local
Rāī ; RDN. ; राई ..	NW ; 15-0	2·3 ; 187 ; 41 ; 187.	Bavada 10-0
Rājāpūr ; RDN. ; राजापूर ..	S , 8-0	3·0 ; 308 ; 50 ; 344.	Gargoti 12-0
Rājāpūr ; SL. ; राजापूर ..	S ; 11-0	4·0 ; 2021 ; 340 ; 1928.	Shirguppi 5-0
Rākṣī ; PN. ; राक्षी ..	S ; 2-4	1·6 ; 931 ; 170 ; 911.	Panhala Kasaba. 3-0
Rāmaṇavāḍī ; RDN. ; रामणवाडी.	SW ; 3-0	4·3 ; 141 ; 41 ; 136.	Murgud 20-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	17-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	1-4	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Hanuman fr. (Ct.; Sud 15).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kodoli Kasaba.	Thu.	2-4		2-0	w., br.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 2tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Hukkeri Road.	47-0	Ajra	Fri.	5-0		4-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Shri Khalnath fr. (in February).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	24-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	5-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	5-0	br.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	20-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	1-0		0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	0-0	Padal	Mon.	2-0		0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; 6tl.; M.; 0gym.; ch.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0		1-4	str.	2tl.
Kolhapur	33-0	Gargoti	Wed.	2-0	Gargoti	2-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl. gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	2-4		3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).: 2cs.; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 6tl.: 2gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	18-0	Dhamod	Sat.	3-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	36-0	Malkapur	Fri	7-0	Nile	4-0	w.	2tl.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	3-0		2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	31-0	Local	Sun.		Local		w., br., rv.	3Sl (2pr, m).; pyt.; 3cs.; 8tl.; 2dp.
Kolhapur	37-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Tue.	8-0	Radha nagari.	15-0	rv., n	2tl.
Kolhapur	43-0	Saravade	Fri.	0-0	Radha-nagari.	6-0	rv.	5tl.
Shedbal	10-0	Kagwad	Sun.	5-0		2-0	rv.	3Sl (3pr).; cs. (lmg).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; 2dg.; ch.
Kolhapur	20-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	3-0		1-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; fr. (in the first week of Ct.); 3tl. mq.; gym.
Kolhapur	33-0	Radha-nagari.	Sun.	3-0		3-0	str.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Rāṅgolī ; HK. ; रांगोळी ..	SE ; 10-0	3·7 ; 2365 ; 434 ; 2068.	Local.
Rāśivaḍe Bk. ; RDN. ; राशिवडे बु॥ ..	E ; 18-0	4·5 ; 3752 ; 669 ; 2899.	Local.
Raśivaḍe Kh. ; RDN. ; राशिवडे खुर्द ..	N ; 12-0	0·5 ; 402 ; 73 ; 462.	Rashiwade 7-0 Bk.
Reḍevāḍī ; AJ. ; रेडेवाडी ..		Deserted.	
Rendāl ; HK. ; रेंदाळ ..	S ; 9-0	5·1 ; 4301 ; 818 ; 2809.	Local.
Reṭhare T. Varuṇ ; SHW ; रेठरे तर्फे वरुण ..	N ; 9-0	3·4 ; 1245 ; 218 ; 1150.	Malkapur 9-0
Ruī ; HK. ; रुई ..	S ; 5-4	5·2 ; 3130 ; 598 ; 2802.	Ichalkaranji. 5-0
Rukaḍī ; HK. ; रुकडी ..	W ; 5-0	6·4 ; 5375 ; 1046 ; 3708.	Local.
Sādale ; KV. ; सादळे ..	N ; 6-0	1·0 ; 236 ; 47 ; 236.	Kolhapur 7-0
Saḍolī Dumālā ; KV. ; सडोली दुमाला ..	W ; 18-0	1·2 ; 621 ; 119 ; 610.	Karvir 11-0
Saḍolī Khālsā ; KV. ; सडोली खालसा ..	SW. 10-0	2·0 ; 1063 ; 282 ; 1463.	Karvir 10-0
Sadurē ; BVD. ; सदुरें ..	S ; 11-0	2·3 ; 854 ; 134 ; 777.	Achirne 12-0
Śahāpūr ; PN. ; शहापूर ..	E ; 5-3	1.1 ; 567 ; 97 ; 535.	Kodoli Kasaba. 3-0
Śahāpūr ; SL. ; शहापूर ..	W ; 7-0	2·1 ; 864 ; 152 ; 847.	Ichalkaranji. 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 15-0	Rendal Thu. 2-0	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; mq.; dh.; 2gym.; ch. Cch.
Kolhapur 14-0	Local. Mon. Fr.	0-6	rv.	2cs.; Viroba fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 5tl.; mq.; 2gym; ch.; lib.; 3dp.
Kolhapur 19-0	Dhamod Sat. 3-0 Deserted.	Amjai Varvade. 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 10-0	Local Thu.	Local.	t.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4cs. (4ct); 2fr. (Ct. Sud 10), Kt. Sud 7); 12tl.; 2mq.; dg.; 2dh.; 2gym.;
Kolhapur 36-0	Malkapur Fri. 0-0	Kokrud 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.
Rukadi 5-0	Ichalkaranji Fri. 5-0	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2c).; Ur. (Phg. Vad 10).; 5tl.; 2mq.; 3dg.; 2gym.; ch.; 2dp.
Local.	Local Thu.		pl., w.	4Sl (3pr., h).; pyt.; 2cs. Miras Ur. (Mg. Vad 30, Phg. Sud 2).; 7tl.; 3mq.; dg; dh.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp; Cch.
Kolhapur 8-0	Kolhapur Sun. 8-0	3-0	W., spl.	Sl (pr).; Siddheshwar fr. (Phg. Vad 2).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 15-0	Hasur Dumala. Tue. 3-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 11-4	Kangaon Thu. 2-0	0-4	rv.	2Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; 2cs.; 3tl.; M.; 2gym.; ch.; lib. dp.
Kolhapur 48-0	Gagan Bavada. Thu. 10-0	Phonda 12-0 Bavada. 11-0	s.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur 16-0	Kodoli Kasaba. Thu. 3-0	Local.	W.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Kt. Sud 11); 2tl.
Hatkanangale. 7-0	Ichalkaranji Fri. 2-0	1-0	w.	Sl (pr.); cs. (c).; Mhasoba fr. (Ct).; 4tl.; mq.; dg. gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Saidāpūr ; SHW. ; सैदापूर ..	E ; 13-4	0·4 ; 152 ; 29 ; 150.	Bambavade 3-0
Saitavaḍe ; BVD. ; सैतवडे ..	E ; 4-4	6·3 ; 588 ; 133 ; 508.	Gagan Bavada. 4-0
Sājaṇī ; HK. ; साजणी ..	SW ; 4-0	2·2 ; 1722 ; 337 ; 1569.	Ichalkaranji. 5-0
Sāke ; KG. ; साके ..	W ; 0-0	3·5 ; 1264 ; 273 ; 1178.	Valve Bk. 4-0
Sākharī ; BVD. ; साखरी ..	E ; 17-0	1·3 ; 440 ; 80 ; 440.	Kasaba Kalo. 6-0
Sālagāṅv ; AJ. ; साळगांव ..	N ; 2-0	2·5 ; 625 ; 124 ; 591.	Ajra 2-0
Sālapevāḍī ; BHD. ; सळपेवाडी ..	S ; 1-0	0·5 ; 367 ; 50 ; 355.	Gargoti 1-0
Sālaśī ; SHW. ; साळशी ..	SE ; 10-4	3·9 ; 1023 ; 379 ; 1923.	Bambavade 2-0
Sālavaṇ ; BVD. ; साळवण ..	E ; 15-4	0·1 ; 164 ; 39 ; 133.	Local.
Sāmbarē ; GGJ. ; सांबरें ..	S ; 17-0	2·3 ; 1130 ; 105 ; 989.	Nesari 3-0
Sāmbū ; SHW. ; सांबू ..	NE ; 1-2	0·7 ; 322 ; 65 ; 280.	Malkapur 3-0
Sāṅgāṅv Kasabā ; KG. ; सांगांव कसबा ..	E ; 3-2	0·2 ; 4313 ; 755 ; 2051.	Local.
Sāṅgāṅv ; KG. ; सांगांव ..	E ; 3-0	3·1 ; 2871 ; 430 ; 1724.	Sangaon Kasaba.
Sāṅgarūḷ ; KV. ; सांगरूळ ..	W ; 10-0	3·4 ; 3548 ; 667 ; 2644.	Kolhapur 9-0
Sāṅgaśī ; BVD. ; सांगशी ..	E ; 2-0	2·6 ; 164 ; 30 ; 109.	Gagan Bavada. 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	24-0	Sarud Kasaba.	Tue.	2-0		3-4	w.	tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	4-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rukadi	5-0	Ichalkaranji	Fri.	5-0		6-2	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Ur. (Kt. Vad 30); 5tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	16-0	Valve Bk.	Sat.	4-0	Ispurli	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Bahiri dev fr. (in Mg).; 4tl. mq.; dh.; ch.
Kolhapur	18-0	Tisangi (Salvan)	Fri.	1-0		2-4	w.	2tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	45-0	Ajra	Fri.	2-0	Ajra	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Laxmi devi fr.; (on any day in the year) 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	3-0	Gargoti	Wed.	1-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr); cs.; tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	2-0	Bambavade	Thu.	2-0	Bambavade	2-0	str., w.	Sl (2pr).; pyt.; cs. (c) 3tl.; 2gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	18-0	Tisangi (Salvan)	Fri.	0-4	Local		rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; lib. dp.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	3-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 4tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	3-0	Malkapur	3-0	rv.	2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	15-0	Local.	Sun.		Local.		w., str. w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3cs. (fmg. mp, mis).; Basaweshwar fr. (Mg. Vad 14).; Hajrat Ladle Ur. (any day in a year).; 13tl.; mq.; dg.; 3gym.; ch.; lib. Och.
Kolhapur	15-0	Local	Sun.		Local		w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Jungali Saheb Ur. (Ct. Sud 8).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	9-0	Local	Thu.			2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3cs.; 4tl.; 2M.; mq.; dg.; 5gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	30-0	Gagan Bavada	Thu.	3-0	Gagan Bavada.	3-0	rv.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Sāṅgavaḍe ; KV. ; सांगवडे ..	SE ; 0–0	3·5 ; 2569 ; 509 ; 2202.	Local.
Saṅgulavāḍī ; BVD. ; सांगुळवाडी.	SW ; 12–0	2·8 ; 1064 ; 18 ; 888.	Achirne 4–0
Śaṅkaravāḍī ; KG. ; शंकरवाडी ..	W ; 6–0	0·6 ; 281 ; 46 ; 266.	Kagal 4–0
Saranobatavāḍī ; KV. ; सरनोबत वाडी.	E ; 3–0	0·6 ; 500 ; 600 ; 322.	Kolhapur 2–4
Saravaḍe ; RDN. ; सरवडे ..	E ; 0–0	3·3 ; 2081 ; 390 ; 2183.	Local.
Sarolī ; AJ. ; सरोळी ..	E ; 11–0	1·0 ; 674 ; 129 ; 628.	Mahagaon 3–0
Sarolī ; GGJ. ; सरोली	S ; 17–0	2·4 ; 652 ; 114 ; 636.	Nesari 3–0
Sarūḍ Kasabā : SHW. ; सरूड कसबा.	E ; 12–0	3·1 ; 2838 ; 561 : 2162.	Local.
Sasegāṅv ; SHW. ; ससेगांव ..	E ; 0–6	0·5 ; 331 ; 51 ; 310.	Shahuwadi 1–0
Sātārḍe ; PN. ; मातार्डे ..	S ; 8–0	4·5 ; 065 ; 18 ; 043.	Panhala Kasaba. 9–0
Sātave ; PN. ; सातवे ..	N ; 6–0	5·5 ; 2808 ; 539 ; 2441.	Kodoli Kasaba. 6–0
Sātevāḍī ; AJ. ; सातेवाडी ..	NW ; 6–0	1·8 : 59 ; 15 : 57.	Ajra 6–0
Saute ; SHW. ; सौते ..	E : 4–2	2·3 ; 696 ; 142 ; 665.	Sarud Kasaba. 3–0
Sāvarḍe ; RDN. ; सावर्डे ..	E ; 6–0	2·0 ; 1248 ; 238 ; 1240.	Gargoti 14–0
Sāvarḍe ; RDN. ; सावर्डे ..	S : 18–0	10·3 ; 824 ; 160 ; 610.	Gargoti 12–0
Sāvarḍe Bk. : KG. ; सावर्डे बु.॥ ..	W ; 15–0	4·1 ; 2072 ; 384 ; 2026.	Karli 12–0
Sāvarḍe ; HK. ; सावर्डे ..	NW ; 7–0	5·2 ; 3010 : 517 ; 2668.	Vadgaon (Kasaba). 3–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Rukadi	4-0	Kadoli	Mon.	1-4		0-6	spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; fr. (Ct. Vad 4 to 6).; 2tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch; lib; dp.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0		8-0	w.	Sl (2pr); Dattajayanti fr. (Mrg. Sud 15).; 2tl.; M.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kagal	Mon.	4-0		6-0	rv	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	1-4	Kolhapur	Sun.	2-4		2-0	w., n.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; tl.
Kolhapur	25-0	Local.	Fri.	1-0	Local.		rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4cs.; 5tl.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	3-0	Kaulage	2-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Bhaveshwari fr. (in February each year).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	3-0	Nesari	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl., gym.
Kolhapur	23-0	Local.	Tue.			0-1	t., rv.	4Sl (3pr, h, m).; pyt; 2cs.; Viroba dev fr. (Ct; Sud 1); 7tl.; M.; gym.; lib; dp.
Kolhapur	10-0	Malkapur	Fri.	2-0		0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	10-0	Padal	Mon.	2-0		2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 6tl.; dh; gym.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kale Kasaba	Sat.			3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2mis). 4tl.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri.	0-0	Ajra	5-0	str.	
Kolhapur	25-0	Sarud Kasaba.	Tue.	3-0		2-0	rv., str.	Sl (pr): Kedarling fr. (Ct. Vad 1).; 2tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Sarawade	Fri.	2-0		1-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. (Ct; Sud 15).; 6tl.
Kolhapur	42-0	Saravade	Fri.	4-0	Kadgaon	9-0	rv.	Sl; Old fort.
Kolhapur	27-0	Local.	Sun.		Murgud	5-0	w., t.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Hatkanangale.	7-0	Vadgaon (Kasaba.)	Mon.	3-0	Local.		w.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Mahashivratri fr. (Mg. Vad 14).; 5tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Sāvarḍe T. Asaṅḍolī ; PN. : सावर्डे तर्फ असंडोली ..	S ; 13-0	2·3 ; 1263 ; 237 ; 1004.	Panhala Kasaba. 13-0
Sāvarḍe Bk. ; SHW. ; सावर्डे बु.॥	SE ; 7-0	0·9 ; 346 ; 65 ; 333.	Bambavade 3-0
Sāvarḍe Dumālā ; KV. ; सावर्डे दुमाला ..	W ; 20-0	1·1 ; 798 ; 148 ; 798.	Karvir 16-0
Sāvarḍe Kh. ; KG. ; सावर्डे खुर्द ..	W ; 12-0	1·2 ; 734 ; 129 ; 729.	Kurli 8-0
Sāvarḍe Kh. ; SHW. ; सावर्डे खुर्द	E ; 5-0	0·8 ; 400 ; 83 ; 307.	Malkapur 4-0
Sāvarḍe T. Sātave ; PN. ; सावर्डे तर्फ सातवे ..	N ; 8-0	2·6 ; 1180 ; 220 ; 1154.	Mangale 0-1
Sāvarevāḍī ; AJ. ; सावरेवाडी ..	SE ; 0-6	0·3 ; 32 ; 9 ; 0.	Ajra 1-0
Sāvardhan ; RDN. ; सावर्धन ..	N ; 1-0	1·0 ; 147 ; 21 ; 145.	Murgud 20-0
Sāvarḍī ; SHW. ; सावर्डी ..	S ; 10-0	2·2 ; 188 ; 90 ; 188.	Bhogaon 8-0
Sāvantavāḍī ; GGJ. ; सावंतवाडी ..	S ; 14-1	0·6 ; 150 ; 19 ; 147.	Nesari 1-0
Sāve ; SHW. ; सावे .	E ; 4-4	3·6 ; 1273 ; 235 ; 1008.	Bambavade 5-0
Śedśal ; SL. ; शेडशाळ ..	SE ; 7-0	3·1 ; 2160 ; 370 ; 1900	Kagwad 6-0
Śelap ; AJ. ; शेळप ..	W ; 7-7	2·4 ; 365 ; 62 ; 364	Ajra 7-0
Śelap (Inc. in Phejivade) ; RDN. शेळप (फेजीवडे) ..	W. 9-0	473 ; 105 ; 465.	Murgud 27-0
Śelevāḍī ; RDN. ; शेळेवाडी ..	NE ; 18-0	0·5 ; 526 ; 84 ; 476.	Murgud 15-0
Śeloli ; BHD. ; शेळोली ..	S ; 7-0	3·4 ; 1031 ; 178 ; 970	Gargoti 7-0
Śeloshi ; BVD. ; शेळोशी ..	E ; 15-0	1·8 ; 214 ; 56 ; 213.	Gagan Bavada. 10-0
Śembavaṇé ; SHW ; शेंबवणें ..	W ; 19-0	7·2 ; 746 ; 147 ; 742.	Malkapur 16-0
Śenavaḍe ; BVD ; शेनवडे ..	E ; 10-0	1·6 ; 294 ; 39 ; 192.	Gagan Bavada. 10-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 12-0	Bajar Bhogaon. Wed. 6-0	1-0	rv., spr	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; 7tl.; 5gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 23-0	Bambavade Thu. 3-0	3-0	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 16-0	Hasur Dumala. Tue. 3-0		w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 15-0	Murgud Tue. 0-0	Sonage 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 30-0	Malkapur Fri. 4-0	Malkapur 6 0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 18-0	Mangale Wed. 1-0	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; 2gym.
Hukkeri road. 43-0	Ajra Fri. 1-0	Ajra 0-6	rv.	
Kolhapur 32-0	Radha-nagari. Sun. 1-0	Radha-nagari. 1-0	rv.	5tl
Kolhapur 31-0	Bhogaon Wed. 8-0	7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum 25 0	Nesari Thu. 1-0	0-4	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur 27 0	Bambavade Thu. 5 0	1 0	rv., str.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 6); 3tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Mhaisal 4-0	Kagwad Sun. 4-0	Kagwad 4-0	rv., w.	2Sl (pr, m).; 2cs. (2c). Maruti fr. (Ct. Sud 2).; Mahadev Swami Dharmarth Math fr. (on first Monday after Mg. Vad 30).; Shri Hajrat Masayabi Urs. Vsk.
Hukkeri Road. 47-0	Ajra Fri. 7-0	1-0	c.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr. (Ct. Sud 15); 3tl; 9tl.; M; 2mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur 42-0	Radha-nagari. Sun 8 0	2-0	n.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.
Kolhapur 12-0	Thikapurli Wed. 1-0	Local.	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 40-0	Kadgaon Fri. 3-0	Karadwadi 1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 6tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 32-0	Dhundavade Sun. 4-0	9-0	w.	2tl.;
Kolhapur 46-0	Malkapur Fri. 16-0	8-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 24-0	Gagan-Bavada. Thu. 10-0	2-0	rv.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office. Distance.
Sendrī ; GGJ ; शेन्द्री ..	N ; 2-4	2·2 ; 991 ; 149 ; 955.	Gadhinglaj 3-0
Sendūr ; KG ; शेंदूर ..	NE ; 8-0	4·9 ; 1577 ; 340 ; 1345.	Kagal 6-0
Seṇgāṅv ; BHD ; शेणगांव ..	SW ; 2-6	3·0 ; 1652 ; 342 ; 1309.	Local.
Sidhanerlī ; KG ; सिधनेर्ली ..	W ; 6-0	3·7 ; 2137 ; 437 ; 2013.	Kagal 5-0
Simpe ; SHW ; शिंपे ..	E ; 7-0	3·5 ; 1100 ; 207 ; 910.	Sarud Kasaba. 1-0
Singaṇāpūr ; KV ; शिंगणापूर ..	W ; 3-0	4·1 ; 3031 ; 551 ; 2680.	Kolhapur 3-0
Sipūr T. Ājrā ; GGJ ; शिपूर तर्फे आजरा ..	W ; 5-0	1·3 ; 1138 ; 204 ; 1109.	Uttur 3-0
Sipūr Nesari ; GGJ ; शिपूर नेसरी	S ; 11-4	1·5 ; 593 ; 96 ; 584.	Nesari 2-0
Siradavāḍ ; SL ; शिरदवाड ..	SW ; 12-0	4·0 ; 2018 ; 512 ; 2390.	Ichalkaranji. 2-0
Siraḍhoṇ ; SL ; शिरढोण .	SW ; 6-4	7·3 ; 3048 ; 596 ; 1976.	Local.
Siragāvṅ ; RDN ; शिरगांव ..	NE ; 11-0	1·8 ; 1501 ; 297 ; 1419.	Kolhapur. 20-0
Siragāṅv ; SHW ; शिरगांव ..	NE ; 0-0	1·7 ; 1205 ; 207 ; 1141.	Malkapur 3-0
Sirālē Arule ; BVD ; शिराळें अरुले	S ; 10-0	2·8 ; 58 ; 110 ; 518.	Achirne 10-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hukkeri Road. 26-0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 3-0	Gadhinglaj 3-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Siddheshwar dev fr. (March).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 18-0	Local. Wed.	8-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (c, sp).; Ur. (in the month of March); 6tl.; 2mq.; dg.; 2dh.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 34-0	Local. Thu.	Local.	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Jyotiba fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; 7tl.; M.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.; Coh.
Kolhapur 12-0	Kagal Mon. 5-0	6-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Gaibi Pir Ur. (1st Thursday in Vsk. Vad).; 8tl.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 24-0	Sarud Kasaba. Tue. 1-0	1-0	rv., w., t.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (Vsk. Sud 3).; tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 5-0	Kolhapur Sun. 3-0	3-0	rv.	3Sl (3pr). 4cs.; Vishali fr. (Ps. Vad 30).; 10tl.; mq.; dg.; 10gym.; ch.; lib.
Hukkeri Road 30-0	Uttur Sat. 2-0	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Ramling deo fr. (Mg. Vad 14). Bhaveshwari devi fr. (Phg Sud. 10).; 3tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road 30-0	Nesari Thu. 2-0	0-2	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 3tl.
Hatkanangale. 8-0	Ichalkaranji. Fri. 2-0	Ichal karanji. 2-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (c, mis).; Ur. & Bhuvaneshwar deo fr. (in the month of March). 5tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Hatkanangale. 8-0	Ichalkaranji. Fri. 2-0	Kurundwad 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr, m).; cs. (c).; Hajarat Pir Deo Urs. (April).; 3tl.; mq.; dg. dh.; 2gym.; ch.; dp.
Kolhapur 20-0	Dhamod Sat. 4-0	Ajmai 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 31-0	Malkapur Fri. 3-0	Malkapur 3-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 45-0	Gagan Bavada. Thu. 11-0	Phonda 13-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; 2tl.

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Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Siralē Malkāpūr ; SHW ; सिराळें मलकापूर ..	NW ; 3-0	3·5 ; 770 ; 158 ; 768.	Shahuwadi 4-0
Sirālē T. Vāruṇ सिराळें तर्फ वारुण ..	NE ; 18-0	3·5 ; 786 ; 158 ; 761.	Arale 2-0
Sirasaṅgī ; AJ ; सिरसंगी ..	SE ; 7-0	12·0 ; 772 ; 173 ; 221.	Nesari 4-0
Sirase ; RDN ; सिरसे ..	NE ; 13-0	1·3 ; 920 ; 163 ; 892.	Kolhapur 20-0
Siraṭī ; SL ; सिरटी ..	SW ; 3-0	11·0 ; 2100 ; 365 ; 1828.	Shirol. 2-4
Sirol ; SL ; सिरोळ ..	HQ ;	14·9 ; 10131 ; 206 ; 7865.	Local.
Sirolī ; HK ; सिरोली ..	W ; 8-	5·6 ; 4678 ; 650 ; 34[illegible].	Local.
Sirolī ; RDN ; सिरोली ..	E ; 2-0	1·4 ; 845 ; 157 ; 785.	Murgud 20-0
Sirolī Dumālā ; KV ; सिरोली दुमाला ..	SW ; 10-0	3·2 ; 2174 ; 401 ; 1790.	Kolhapur 12-0
Sitūr ; SHW ; सितूर ..	NE ; 7-0	2·6 ; 1177 ; 226 ; 1169.	Bambavade 2-0
Sitūr T. Vāruṇ ; SHW ; सितूर तर्फ वारुण ..	N ; 20-0	2·6 ; 1792 ; 332 ; 1506.	Arale 1-0
Sivāre ; SHW ; सिवारे ..	W ; 8-0	1·7 ; 756 ; 121 ; 762.	Sarud Kasaba. 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 32-0	Malkapur Fri. 5-0	Malkapur 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Karad 40-0	Arale Sat. 2-0	Kokrud 8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Shri Khalnath dev fr. (Ps. Sud 15); 3tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road. 50-0	Nesari Thu. 4-0	7-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Laxmi fr. 6tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 20-0	Ghotawade Mon. 2-0	Local.	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (Mg. Vad 1).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 7-4	Shirol Sat. 2-4	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (2o).; Bhairav dev fr. (on Sunday immediately following Ct. Sud 15).; 5tl.; mq. 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Jaysingpur 6-0	Local Sat.	Local	rv., t.	8Sl (7pr, m).; pyt.; 2cs. (2o).; Guru Dwadashi fr. (An. Vad 1). Datta Jayanti fr. (Mrg. Sud 14); 30 tl.; 2M.; 2mq.; 2dh. 6gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 5dp.
Kolhapur 5-0	Kolhapur Sun. 5-0	Local 0-2	t., w.	Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2o); Balam Pir Ur. (Ct. Vad 7).; M.; 3mq.; dh.; 3gym ; 6tl.; ch.; one reading room ; 4dp.
Kolhapur 31-0	Radha-nagari, Sun., 2-0 Kasaba Tarale. Thu.	Radha-nagari. 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 4tl ; ch.
Kolhapur 12-0	Sangrul Thu. 5-0	4-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 10tl.; M.; 7gym.; dp.
Kolhapur 22-0	Bambavade Thu. 2-0	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Kedarling deo fr. (Ct. Sud 7).; 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Karad 40-0	Arale Sat. 1-0	19-0	rv., str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Devakalamma fr. (Ps. Sud 15). 3tl.
Kolhapur 29-0	Sarud Kasaba. Tue. 3-0	Banbavade 6-0	w. rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; 2gym.

(G.C.P.) M-O Vf 768—6Ia

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Sivaḍāva ; BHD ; शिवडाव ..	W : 20-0	6·9 ; 709 ; 153 ; 604.	Shengaon 18-0
Siye ; KV ; शिये .	N ; 5-4	3·4 ; 2040 ; 426 ; 1804.	Kolhapur 5-0
Sohāḷe ; AJ ; सोहाळे ..	N ; 2-0	1·9 ; 603 ; 118 ; 587.	Ajra 2-0
Solaṅkūr ; RDN ; सोळंकूर .	E ; 6-0	1·6 ; 1148 ; 209 ; 954.	Murgud 9-0
Sonage ; KG ; सोनगे .	S ; 21-0	1·7 ; 804 ; 150 ; 754.	Kurli 4-0
Sonāḷī ; BHD ; सोनाळी .	S ; 0-1	1·7 ; 1178 ; 207 ; 1014.	Gargoti 0-1
Sonāḷī ; BVD ; सोनाळी ..	W ; 10-0	2·0 ; 728 ; 140 ; 675.	Kharepatan. 10-0
Sonāḷī ; KG ; सोनाळी ..	W ; 15-0	3·9 ; 1373 ; 274 ; 1244.	Kurli 12-0
Sonāḷī ; KV , सोनाळी .	W ; 16-0	1·1 ; 798 ; 148 ; 420.	Kolhapur 18-0
Sonāravāḍī ; BHD ; सोनारवाडी ..	W ; 4-0	2·3 ; 1278 ; 220 ; 1278.	Shengaon 1-0
Sonārlī ; SHW ; सोनार्ली ..	NW ; 28-0	3·6 ; 429 ; 96 ; 420.	Arale (Shirale) 7-0
Sonavaḍe ; SHW ; सोनवडे .	SE ; 9-0	1·5 ; 823 ; 10 ; 649.	Bambavade 1-0
Sonḍolī ; SHW ; सोंडोली ..	N ; 15-0	1·7 ; 1019 ; 210 ; 951.	Charan 2-0
Sonūrle ; SHW ; सोनूर्ले ..	S ; 9-0	7·1 ; 727 ; 150 ; 715.	Bhogaon 5-0
Sonurlī ; BHD ; सोनुर्ली ..	S ; 12-0	1·3 ; 306 ; 67 ; 269.	Shengaon 11-0
Sriṅgāravāḍī ; AJ ; शृंगारवाडी .	S ; 4-6	1·0 ; 221 ; 37 ; 751.	Ajra 3-0
Sulagāṅv ; AJ ; सुलगांव ..	E ; 1-4	1·2 ; 275 ; 46 ; 257.	Ajra 1-0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	49-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	9-0	Paggaon	1-0	w.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	6-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0		1-4	rv., w.	SI (pr).; cs. (o).; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Vad 1).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Ajra	Fri.	2-0		2-0	rv.	cs.; Laxmi fr. (after 5 years) 5tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	2-0	Radhanagari and Sarawade.	Sun., Thu.	5-0	Local		rv.,	SI (pr).; pyt.; Mahashivratri fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; 4tl.; dg.; 2gym.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	3-0	Murgud	Tue.	0-0	Local.		rv.	SI (pr).; cs. (o).; Choundeshwari devi fr. (Srn; Sud 5).; tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	31-0	Gargoti	Wed.	0-2	Gargoti	1-0	rv.	SI (pr).; pyt.; cs.; 3tl; dh.; ch.
Kolhapur	40-0	Khareptan	Tue.	10-0			w.	SI (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	18-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0	Murgud	4-0	w.	SI (pr).; 2cs. (sp, fmg).; 5tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	13-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-0		3-0	w.	SI (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	33-0	Shengaon	Thu.	1-0	Gargoti	4-0	w.	SI (2pr).; cs.; 8tl.; mq.; gym. Bhudargad fort.
Kolhapur	56-0	Arale	Sat.	7-0	Nile	20-0	rv.	2tl.
Kolhapur	21-0	Bambavade	Thu.	1-0	Bambavade.	1-0	str.	SI (pr).; cs.; Shri Viroba deo fr. (Ct. Sud 1),; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	44-0	Charan	Thu.	1-0		5-0	rv.	SI (pr).; Kedarling fr. (Ct. Vad 1).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	25-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	5-0		5-0	rv., str.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	44-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	3-0		3-0	o.	SI (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	47-0	Ajra	Fri.	3-0		4-0	o.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	41-0	Ajra	Fri.	1-0		1-4	rv.	SI (pr).; tl.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Sūlakūḍ ; KG ; सूळकूड ..	SE ; 6–0	3·2 ; 2488 ; 455 ; 2087 ;	Local.
Sulambī ; RDN ; सुळंबी ..	E ; 7–0	0·8 ; 499 ; 91 ; 493.	Murgud 9–0
Sule ; AJ ; सुळे ..	E ; 11–0	1·1 ; 926 ; 170 ; 898.	Mahagaon 2–4
Sule ; PN ; सुळे ..	SW ; 15–0	0·9 ; 620 ; 123 ; 568.	Kale Kasaba. 3–0
Sulerān ; AJ ; सुलेरान ..	W ; 13–0	2·0 ; 572 ; 104 ; 493.	Ajra 11–0
Supātrē ; SHW ; सुपात्रे ..	NE ; 11–0	1·8 ; 802 ; 158 ; 855.	Bambavade 1–0
Surupalī ; KG ; सुरुपली ..	SW ; 24–0	1·2 ; 872 ; 158 ; 777.	Kurli 9–0
Tākalī ; SL ; टाकळी ..	S ; 11–0	7·3 ; 4250 ; 724 ; 3862.	Dattwad 2–0
Tākavaḍe ; SL ; टाकवडे ..	SW ; 7–0	4·0 ; 2664 ; 496 ; 2542.	Local.
Talagāṅv ; RDN ; तळगांव ..	N ; 8–0	4·1 ; 769 ; 158 ; 759.	Murgud 20–0
Talandage ; HK ; तळंदगे ..	N ; 11–0	3·9 ; 1777 ; 346 ; 1533	Hupari 1–0
Talasande ; HK ; तळसंदे ..	NW ; 14–0	3·9 ; 1870 ; 302 ; 1566.	Paragaon 1–0
Talāśi ; RDN ; तळाशी ..	E ; 21–6	4·3 ; 2076 ; 369 ; 1999.	Murgud 14–0
Talavaḍe ; SHW ; तळवडे ..	NW ; 11–0	1·5 ; 170 ; 40 ; 149.	Amba.
Talaye Kh. ; BVD. ; तळये खुर्द ..	S ; 4–0	3·4 ; 254 ; 55 ; 245.	Kasaba Kale. 10–0
Talaye Bk. ; BVD. ; तळये बु ॥	NE ; 14–0	4·1 ; 206 ; 42 ; 192.	Kasaba Kale. 10–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	19-0	Kunnur	Mon.	2-0		3-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; Masoba dev. fr. (in Vaishak the first or Second Thursday after Vsk. Vad 3). 7tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	2-0	Saravade	Fri.	2-0	Local.		rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	47-0	Mahagaon	Mon.	2-4		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	3-0	Kale	0-8	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	55-0	Ajra	Fri.	11-0	Local.		w.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr. (Ps. Sud 15).; 4tl.; dh.
Kolhapur	20-0	Bambavade.	Thu.	1-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. (on first Saturday after Ct. Sud 15).; tl.
Kolhapur	34-0	Murgud	Tue.	34-0	Local.		rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur	15-0	Dattwad	Wed.	2-0	Local.		rv., w., t.	Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Laxmidevi fr.; 5tl.; M. 2mq.; 2dh.; 2gym.; ch; 2lib.
Hatkanangale.	7-0	Ichalkaranji.	Fri.	2-4			rv., w.	Sl (2pr).; cs. (c).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	13-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	5-0		8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Hupari	Sat.	1-0		2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c).; Jagannath fr. (Kt. Sud 1).; 11tl.; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	14-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	4-0	Local.		t.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Vithoba; fr. (Phg. Vad 11).; 3tl. gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	13-0	Thikapurli	Wed.	4-0		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (in Ct. and in Mg).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; 5gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	10-0		0-2	str.	tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Tisangi Salvan.	Fri.	4-0	Bavada	4-0	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	22-0	Tisangi Salvan.	Fri.	4-0		3-4	rv., w.	3tl.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Talevāḍi; GGJ.; तळेवाडी ..	SW; 14–0	1·0; 438; 76; 396.	Nesari 1–0
Talevāḍī; PN.; तळेवाडी ..	SW; 0–0	0·2; 50; 10; 50.	Panhala Kasaba. 10–0
Tamadalage; SL.; तमदलगे ..	NW; 10–0	3·4; 916; 165; 886.	Hathanangale. 3–0
Tāmagāñv; KV.; त.मगांव ..	SE; 7–0	3·1; 077; 140; 664.	Kolhapur 7–0
Tamanākavāḍā; KG.; तमनाकवाडा	S; 24–0	2·9; 1015; 181; 945.	Kapashi 2–0
Tāmbāḷe; BHD.; तांबाळे ..	W; 17–0	3·4; 586; 102; 529.	Shengaon 15–0
Tāmbave; SHW.; तांबवे ..	NW; 25–0	2·7; 265; 55; 264.	Arale (Dist. Satara). 5–0
Tāmbyacivāḍī; BHD.; तांब्याचीवाडी	W; 27–0	11·2; 720; 126; 722.	Shengaon 24–0
Tanāḷī; SHW.; तनाळी ..	N; 21–0	3·2; 182; 53; 181.	Arale 7–0
Tanavaḍī; GGJ.; तनवडी ..	SE; 6–0	1·5; 614; 103; 588.	Gadhinglaj 5–0
Tānduḷavāḍī; PN.; तांदूळवाडी ..	SW; 10-4	1·0; 507; 87; 507.	Kale Kasaba. 6–0
Tāradāḷ; HK.; तारदाळ ..	SE; 3–0	6·5; 3318; 584; 2088.	Local.
Tārale Kasaba; RDN.; तारळे कसबा	NE; 4–0	2·3; 1058; 304; 1230.	Local.
Tarāḷe Kh.; RDN.; तराळे खुर्द ..	NE; 5–0	2·5; 1224; 214; 1125.	Kasaba Tarale. 1–0
Tarasambaḷe; RDN.; तरसंबळे ..	NE; 11–0	1·5; 543; 96; 538.	Kolhapur 21–0
Tarasavāḍī; KV.; तरसवाडी ..	SW; 17–0	1·8; 473; 90; 262.	Kolhapur 10–0
Tārevāḍī; GGJ.; तारेवाडी ..	S; 18–0	1·0; 298; 50; 284.	Nesari.
Tāsagānv; HK.; तासगांव ..	SW; 10–0	2·3; 700; 123; 690.	Vadgaon Kasaba. 8–0
Tāvarevāḍī; GGJ.; तावरेवाडी ..	S; 17–0	0·7; 313; 45; 302.	Nesari 2–0
Tekoḷī; SHW.; टेकोळी ..	W; 2–0	1·5; 305; 60; 302.	Malkapur 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	25-0	Nesari	Thu.	1-0		0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	17-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	2-0		0-2	W.	tl.
Nimshirgaon Dhumala.	0-6	Hatkanangale.	Tue.	3-0	Local.	0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	7-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	8-0		2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; 2mq.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	35-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	48-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	7-0		0-4	w., str., rv.	Sl (pr).; Shri Tambaleshwar fr. (Mg. Sud 9).; 4tl.; 2mq.
Kolhapur	46-0	Arale	Sat.	5-0		5-0	str.	2tl.
Kolhapur	58-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	16-0		0-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	56-0	Arale	Sat.	7-0		8-0	str.	tl.
Malkapur	7-0	Gadhinglaj	Sun.	5-0			w.	Sl (pr).; Yallama dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 4tl. gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	18-0	Kale Kasaba.	Sat.	6-0	Parkhadale	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Hatkanangale.	3-0	Hatkanangale.	Fri.	3-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2c); 8tl.; mq.; lib.
Kolhapur	2-0	Local.	Thu.		K. Varsavade.	2-0	rv., w.	Sl (2pr).; cs.; Shri Vithalai devi fr. (Phg. Vad 13, 14).; 8tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; gym.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	23-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu	0-6		3-4	w	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	20-0	Kasaba Tarale.	Thu.	4-0		4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	19-0	Hasur Dumala.	Tue.	2-0		5-0	n.	Sl (pr).; ch.
Belgaum	20-0	Nesari	Thu.			1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	10-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	3-0	Vadgaon	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; ch.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	2-0	Nesari	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	2-0	Malkapur	0-4	rv.	Maruti fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; tl.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Telave; PN.; तेलवे ..	SW; 8–0	0·6; 327; 63; 295.	Panhala Kasaba. 8–0
Tenginha'; GGJ.; तेंगीन हाळ ..	SE; 11–0	1·1; 501; 89; 484.	Nesari 6-0
Terani; GGJ.; तेरणी ..	S; 23–0	4·3; 2411; 497; 2235.	Halkarni 8–0
Tervāḍ; SL.; तेरवाड ..	S; 6–0	4·0; 567; 104; 457.	Kurundwad 1-0
Thāṇē; PN.; ठाणें ..	S; 6–0	1·7; 1482; 268; 1306.	Panhala Kasaba. 6–0
Thāṇevāḍī; KG.; ठाणेंवाडी ..	SE; 30–0	0·9; 129; 24; 129.	Kapashi 5–0
Thavaḍe; SHW.; थावडे ..	N; 12–0	0·8; 445; 95; 431.	Charan 1–0
Theragāṅv; SHW.; थेरगांव ..	E; 13–0	2·5; 1092; 226; 1092.	Sarud Kasaba. 3–0
Thikapurlī; RDN.; थिकपुर्ली ..	SW; 17–0	3·7; 2028; 347; 1521.	Local.
Tīkavāḍī; GGJ.; टीकवाडी ..	S; 14–0	0·2; Deserted	
Tikkevāḍi; BHD.; टिक्केवाडी ..	N; 5–0	2·4; 1053; 201; 999.	Gargoti 8–0
Tilavaṇi; HK.; तिळवणी ..	SW; 2–0	1·7; 876; 151; 721.	Ichalkaranji. 4–0
Tirapaṇ; PN.; तिरपण ..	SW; 7–0	1·3; 929; 166; 827.	Panhala Kasaba. 8–0
Tiravaḍe; BHD.; तिरवडे ..	S; 9–4	1·7; 627; 111; 592.	Shengaon 7–4
Tiravaḍe Khārepāṭan; BVD.; तिरवडे खारेपाटण ..	W; 7–0	2·7; 749; 129; 714.	Kharepatan 15-0
Tiravaḍe; Soundal; BVD.; तिरवडे सोंदाळ ..	NE; 15–0	2·7; 409; 79; 412.	Kharepatan 15-0
Tisangi; BVD.; तिसगी ..	E; 16–0	2·1; 969; 184; 642.	Kasaba Kale. 6–4
Tiṭave; RDN.; टिटवे ..	E; 10–4	1·6; 1061; 196; 929.	Murgud 12–0
Tithavalī; BVD.; तिथवली ..	W; 16–0	5·1; 1284; 264; 1142.	Kolavali 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	16-0	Kotoli	Sun.	2-0		1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl. gym.
Belgaum	20-0	Daddi	Mon.			6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Pacchapur	11-0	Halkarni	Wed.	3-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. ; Laxmi devi fr. (once in 5 years).; 4tl.; gym.
Jaysingpur	10-0	Kurundwad	Thu.	1-0		0-2	rv.	Sl (pr).; Mangrai devi fr. (Phg).; 4tl.; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	8-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Mon.	6-0		4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; 3 tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	40-0	Kapashi	Mon.	5-0	Murgud	4-0	str.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari devi fr. (in Mg.; ch.).
Kolhapur	43-0	Charan	Thu.	1-0	Kokrud	5-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	24-0	Sarud Kasaba.	Tue.	3-0		5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Maruti fr; (Bdp. Sud 15).; 4tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	18-0	Local.	Mon.			1-0	w., t.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; fr. (Phg. Vad 13).; 7tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
					Deserted.			
Kolhapur	31-0	Sarawade	Fri.	3-0		3-0	c.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; 3tl.
Hathan-angale.	3-0	Ichal-karanji.	Fri.	4 0		0-1	w.	Sl (pr, m).; cs. (c).; Pir dev Ur. (Ct. Sud 1).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; cch.
Kolhapur	15-0	Kotoli	Tue.	0-4		0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; 5gym.; dp.
Kolhapur	40-4	Kadgaon	Fri.	0-4	Kadgaon	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Kolhapur	40-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Thu.	34-0	Bavada	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	50-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	13-0	Bavada	15-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	19-0	Local.	Fri.		Local.		rv., w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 4tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	17-0	Thikapurli	Wed.	4-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	53-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	8-0	Kharepatan	5-0	rv., w.	2Sl (pr, m).; fr. (Kt.; Sud 15, Phg. 15).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Top ; HK. ; टोप ..	W ; 14-0	8·0 ; 3598 ; 708 ; 3191.	Local.
Tupuravāḍī ; GGJ. ; तुपुरवाडी	NW ; 10-0	0·6 ; 395 ; 72 ; 346.	Halkarni 5-0
Turbe ; RDN. ; तुर्बे ..	E ; 10-0	2·4 ; 2278 ; 432 ; 2060.	Murgud 8-0
Ucaṅgī ; AJ. ; उचंगी ..	S ; 4-0	2·8 ; 108 ; 24 ; 108.	Ajra 4-0
Ucat ; SHW. ; उचत ..	W ; 1-4	1·7 ; 648 ; 124 ; 551.	Malkapur 1-4
Udagāṅv ; SL. ; उदगांव ..	N ; 4-0	10·3 ; 3184 ; 627 ; 2952.	Local.
Udagiri ; SHW. ; उदगिरी	NW ; 22-0	9·5 ; 081 ; 137 ; 675.	Arale 6-0 (Dist. Satara).
Ukhaḷū ; SHW. ; उखळू ..	N ; 21-0	4·8 ; 703 ; 175 ; 793.	Arale 2-0 (Mhal Shirale)
Ukoḷī ; SHW. ; उकोळी ..	S ; 1-0	2·2 ; 749 ; 123 ; 748.	Malkapur 3-0
Umaḷavāḍ ; SL. ; उमळवाड ..	N ; 7-0	2·7 ; 1515 ; 274 ; 1453.	Jaysingpur 1-4
Umbarḍe ; BVD. ; उंबर्डे ..	W ; 10-0	4·7 ; 1977 ; 390 ; 1968.	Kharepatan 10-0
Uṇcagāṅv ; KV. ; उंचगांव ..	E ; 4-0	3·9 ; 2530 ; 603 ; 1270.	Kolhapur 2-0
Uṇḍaravāḍī ; KG. ; उंदरवाडी ..	SW ; 32-0	3·3 ; 1021 ; 195 ; 916.	Murgud 4-0
Uṇḍarī ; PN. ; उंडरी ..	W ; 12-0	1·5 ; 576 ; 98 ; 576.	Panhala 21-0 Kasaba.

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 9-0	Vadgaon Kasaba. Mon. 3-0	Local.	w.	3Sl (2 pr, m).; pyt.; Pir dev fr. (Ct. Sud 1).; Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; Ur. (Vsk. Sud 6).; 11tl; 3M.; 2mq.; dg.; dh.; 7gym.; ch.; lib.; 3dp.; Tomb of Sambhaji.
Hukkeri Road. 25-0	Halkarni Wed. 5-0	4-0	t.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur 22-0	Sarawade Fri. 2-0	1-2	rv.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 3cs.; 10tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 48-0	Ajra Fri. 4-0	5-0	str.	2tl.
Kolhapur 30-0	Malkapur Fri. 1-4	Malkapur 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 1-0	Jaysingpur Sun. 1-0	Local. 1-0	w., rv.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2c). (1) Jogani fr. (Vsk. Vad 30).; (2) Urus (on any Thursday in Ct).; (3) Viroba fr. (An. Sud 15).; 13tl.; 3mq.; dg.; dh.; 4gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 48-0	Arale Sat. 0-0	15-0	str.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Phg. Sud 15 and Phg. Vad 5).; 5tl.; mq ; ch.; Kalamma devi-an old temple.
Kolhapur 50-0	Aralo Sat. 2-0	11-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Ct. Sud 10).; 3tl.
Kolhapur 29-0	Malkapur Fri. 3-0	1-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; ch.
Jaysingpur 1-4	Jaysingpur Sun. 1 4		rv., w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c). Mahashivratri fr. (Mg. Vad 11).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 40-0	Kharepatan Tue. 6-0	10-0	w.	3Sl (pr, 2m).; pyt.; fr. (Kt. Sud 15).; 6tl.; mq.; dg.
Gandhinagar 2-0	Karvir Sun. 3-0	1-0	W., rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 5tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; 3gym.
Kolhapur 27-0	Sarawade Bk. Fri. 1-0	0-3	w.	Sl (pr).; Bahiri dev fr. (in Mg).; 4tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 21-0	Bajar Bhogaon. Wed. 2-4	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Upaḷe ; BVD. ; उपळे ..	N ; 12–0	3·0 ; 697 ; 129 ; 676.	Kharepatan 15–0
Upavaḍe ; KV. ; उपवडे ..	W ; 13–0	2·9 ; 526 ; 84 ; 517.	Kolhapur 15–0
Utre ; PN. ; उत्रे ..	S ; 3–0	1·8 ; 1127 ; 217 ; 1022.	Panhala Kasaba 3–0
Uttūr Kasabā ; AJ. ; उत्तूर कसबा.	NE ; 11–0	6·8 ; 4168 ; 755 ; 3028.	Local
Vābhave ; BVD. ; वाभवे ..	SW ; 10–0	2·3 ; 349 ; 66 ; 288.	Achirne 4–0
Vaḍācivāḍī ; RDN. ; वडाची वाडी.	S ; 18–0	1·0 ; 128 ; 21 ; 119.	Gargoti 10–0
Vāḍade ; RDN. ; वाडदे ..	S ; 11–0	3·2 ; 193 ; 36 ; 189.	Gargoti 11–0
Vaḍagāṅv ; KV. ; वडगांव ..	S ; 12–0	3·6 ; 901 ; 193 ; 854.	Kolhapur 12–0
Vaḍagāṅv ; HK. ; वडगांव ..	W ; 8–0	2·6 ; 1315 ; 277 ; 1100.	Herle 1–0
Vaḍagāṅv ; SHW. ; वडगांव ..	E ; 7–0	0·6 ; 311 ; 49 ; 303.	Sarud Kasaba. 0–4
Vaḍagāṅv ; KG. ; वडगांव ..	S ; 24–0	1·8 ; 923 ; 168 ; 818.	Kapashi 2–0
Vaḍagāṅv Kasabā ; HK. ; वडगांव कसबा ..	SW ; 10–0	5·8 ; 6173 ; 1139 ; 3102.	Local
Vaḍak-śivale ; AJ. ; वडक–शिवले.	SW ; 7–0	1·6 ; 685 ; 124 ; 641.	Uttur 6–0
Vaḍakaśivāle ; KV. ; वडकशिवाले.	SE ; 12–4	1·1 ; 887 ; 158 ; 812.	Kolhapur 14–0
Vaḍaṇage ; KV. ; वडणगे ..	N ; 3–0	4·6 ; 4310 ; 829 ; 2752.	Kolhapur 3–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gagan-Bavada.	Tue.	10-0	Bavada.	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; M.
Kolhapur	15-0	Sangrul	Thu.	4-0		7-0	spr., n.	Sl (pr).; tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	11-0	Panhala Kasaba.	Sun.	8-0		0-1	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; fr. (in the month of May).; tl.; gym.
Hukkeri Road.	35-0	Local.	Sat.		Local.		w., t.	2Sl (pr, m).; 2cs.; fr. (Phg. Sud 15).; 11tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Kolhapur	46-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0	Phonda	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	44-0	Kadgaon		5-0	Radha-nagari.	18-0	cl.	
Kolhapur	42-0	Saravade	Fri.	2-0		15-0	rv.	8tl.
Kolhapur	13-0	Ispurli	Fri.	4-0		3-0	n.	Sl (pr).; 4tl., mq.; dg. 2gym.; ch.
Rukadi	4-0	Herle	Sat.	1-0	Local.	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Hajrat Pir dev Ur. (Phg. Vad; 11).; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	25-0	Sarud Kasaba.	Tue.	1-4		10 0	w., rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Kolhapur	35-0	Kapashi	Mon.	2-0		2-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Vad 5).; 3tl.; dh.; ch.
Hatkan-angale.	0-0	Local	Mon.	-	Local.		t.	4Sl (3pr, m).; Mun.; 2cs. (2mis)., 7tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; 2dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; 11dp.; Famous for the tomb of Dhanaji Jadhao.
Hukkeri Road.	38-0	Uttur	Sat.	5-0	Madilage	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	14-0	Ispurli	Fri.	2-0		1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 2tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	4-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	3-0		2-0	t	4Sl (4pr).; pyt.; 11cs.; *Mahashivaratri* fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 7tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.; Cch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Vaḍarage-Majare ; GGJ. ; वडरगे-मजरे. ..	N ; 2-0	2768 ; 450 ; 2539.	Gadhinglaj 2-0
Vaḍavāḍī ; KV. ; वडवाडी ..	S ; 9-0	0·8 ; 137 ; 29 ; 137.	Kaneri 5-0
Vāḍīcaran ; SHW. ; वाडीचरण ..	E ; 9-0	0·9 ; 664 ; 121 ; 545.	Bambavade 1-0
Vāḍī Huḍūmb ; SHW. ; वाडी हुडुंब.	N ; 27-0	0·9 ; 154 ; 34 ; 154.	Arale 10-0
Vāḍīpir ; KV. ; वाडीपीर ..	SW ; 4-4	1·1 ; 577 ; 103 ; 555.	Kolhapur 4-4
Vāḍī Ratnāgirī ; PN. ; वाडी रत्नागिरी	E ; 6-0	2·2 ; 1823 ; 359 ; 407.	Kodoli Kasaba. 10-0
Vāḍīujalāī ; KV. ; वाडी उजळाई ..	SE ; 5-0	2·2 ; 351 ; 77 ; 306.	Kolhapur 5-0
Vāghāpūr ; BHD. ; वाघापूर ..	NE ; 7-0	2·1 ; 1411 ; 283 ; 1280.	Murgud 2-0
Vāgharālī ; GGJ. ; वाघराळी ..	S ; 10-4	1·5 ; 815 ; 172 ; 728.	Nesari 3-0
Vāghavaḍe ; RDN. ; वाघवडे ..	NE ; 17-0	0·9 ; 264 ; 41 ; 262.	Kolhapur 18-0
Vāghave ; PN. ; वाघवे ..	S ; 3-0	2·0 ; 1945 ; 333 ; 1696.	Panhala Kasaba. 3-0
Vāghurḍe ; PN. ; वाघुर्डे ..	S ; 15-0	1·9 ; 724 ; 132 ; 680.	Panhala Kasaba. 14-0
Vairagavāḍī ; GGJ. ; वैरागवाडी .	S ; 6-0	0·6 ; 332 ; 47 ; 332.	Mahagaon 2-0
Vākare ; KV. ; वाकरे ..	W ; 7-0	2·5 ; 1881 ; 366 ; 1828.	Kolhapur 7-0
Vākī ; RDN. ; वाकी ..	S ; 18-0	5·3 ; 535 ; 125 ; 517.	Gargoti 12-0
Vākolī ; SHW. ; वाकोली ..	NW ; 9-0	2·2 ; 273 ; 64 ; 272.	Malkapur 9-0
Vālave Kh. ; KG. ; वाळवे खुर्द ..	SW ; 14-0	1·8 ; 1058 ; 205 ; 1022.	Valve Bk. 1-4

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hukkeri Road 30-0	Gadhinglaj Sun. 2-0	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur 8-0	Kolhapur Sun. 8-0	9-0	w., spr.	2tl.
Kolhapur 21-0	Bambavade Thu. 1-0	Bambavade 1-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Mahadev fr.; (Mg. Vad 13).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Karad 3-0	Aralo Sat. 10-0	Nile 24-0	rv.	
Kolhapur 5-4	Kolhapur Sun. 4-4	0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Pir Urs. (Ct. Sud 8).; tl.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur 12-0	Kodoli Kasaba. Sun. 10-0	Local.	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Jyotirling dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 3tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Kolhapur 5-0	Kolhapur Sun. 5-0	Local	spr., (o)	Sl (pr).; fr. 4 or 5 days after (Ct. Sud 1).; 2tl. M.; gym.
Kolhapur 29-0	Murgud Tue. 2-0	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2cs.; Shri Viroba fr. (Phg. Vad 15).; 6tl.; mq.; 3gym.
Hukkeri Road. 30-0	Nesari Thu. 3-0	Hatkanangale. 1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (fmg).; 7tl.; village medical centre.
Kolhapur 18-0	Ghotawade Mon 3-0	Kaulav 1-0	w.	Sl (pr)., cs.; 2tl.
Kolhapur 12-0	Panhala Kasba. Sun. 3-0	0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; lib. (mob).
Kolhapur 14-0	Kale Kasaba. Sat. 2-0	Kale 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; 2gym.; ch.
Hukkeri Road. 28-0	Mahagaon Mon 2-0		rv. (o).	Sl (pr); fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 8-0	Sangrul Thu. 2-4	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs., Kedarling dev. fr. (in Ct.).; 3tl. M.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib; (mob).;
Kolhapur 42-0	Radhanagari. Sun. 18-0	Radhanagari 18-[illegible]	w.	2tl.
Kolhapur 36-0	Malkapur Fri. 7-0	2-0	str	tl.
Kolhapur 23-0	Valve Bk. Sat. 1-4	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Maruti fr; (Mrg. Sud 1).; 2tl.; mq., ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Vālave ; RDN. ; वाळवे ..	NE ; 18-0	6 0 ; 4225 ; 792 ; 3424	Local
Valivaḍe ; KV. ; वळिवडे ..	E ; 6-0	2·3 ; 2261 ; 474 ; 1963.	Gandhi-nagar. 1-2
Vāloli ; PN. ; वाळोली ..	SW ; 10-0	1·6 ; 604 ; 125 ; 587.	Panhala Kasaba. 11-0
Vālūr ; SHW. ; वाळूर ..	NW , 7-0	2·2 ; 573 ; 115 ; 569.	Malkapur 5-0
Vanālī ; KG. ; वनाळी ..	W ; 9-0	2·1 ; 1253 ; 208 ; 1136	Kagal 8 0
Vandūr ; KG. : वंदूर ..	NW ; 2-0	2·4 : 1340 ; 236 ; 1176.	Kagal 2-0
Vanur ; KG ; वनुर ..	W ; 4-0	3·9 ; 1495 ; 319 , 1354.	Kagal 4 0
Varaṇage ; KV. ; वरणगे ..	NE : 5-0	1·5 ; 1320 ; 263 ; 1033.	Kolhapur 5-0
Vāranūl ; PN. ; वारनूळ ..	SW ; 10-0	1·1 ; 203 . 55 ; 168.	Kale Kasaba. 3-0
Vārūl ; SHW. : वारूळ ..	N : 7-0	2 3 ; 515 ; 112 ; 514.	Malkapur 6-0
Vasagaḍe ; KV. ; वसगडे ..	E ; 8-0	3·7 ; 3001 ; 634 ; 2407.	Local.
Vāsanoli ; BHD. ; वासनोली ..	W : 12-0	3·9 : 614 ; 133 ; 612.	Shengaon 0-4
Vāśi ; KV. ; वाशी ..	SW ; 6-0	5·0 ; 1783 , 357 ; 1456	Kolhapur 6-0
Vāśi : PN. ; वाशी ..	W ; 15-0	5·6 ; 180 : 33 ; 180.	Panhala Kasaba. 22-0
Vaṭaṅgi ; GGJ. ; वाटगी ..	S ; 18-0	5·3 ; 1099 ; 214 ; 1073.	Nesari 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	18-0	Local.	Sat			3-0	rv., w.	2Sl (2pr).; 15tl.; 4gym.; ch.; 3lib ; 3dp.
Gandhi-nagar.	1-4	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0	Gandhi-nagar.	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs.; frs. (Ps. Vad 15, Phg. Vad 0).; 5tl.; M.; 3gym.; lib.
Kolhapur	20-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	2-0	Pohale T. Bhorgaon.	1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Jyotiba dev fr. on the second Sunday after (Ct. Sud 15).; 3gym.
Kolhapur	34-0	Malkapur	Fri.	5-0	Nile.	1-0	rv., w., str.	Sl (pr).; tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	16-0	Khebawade	Tue.	2-0		5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2cs. (c, sp).; Two frs. on Ambabai hill. (1) The 1st Tuesday in Magh Vadya (2) The last Tuesday in Shravan Vadya ; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	14-0	Kagal	Mon.	2-0	Kagal.	2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 8tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	10-0	Kagal	Mon	4-0	Kagal	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Dasara fr. (As. Sud 1 to 10).; 5tl.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.
Kolhapur	5-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0		1-4	rv.	2cs.; 3tl.; M.; mq.; 2gym.; lib. (mob).
Kolhapur	17-0	Bajar Bhogaon	Wed.	2-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	35-0	Malkapur	Fri.	6-0		0-4	rv., str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Gandhi-nagar.	3-6	Kodoli	Mon.	2-4		1-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Sikandar Pir Urs. (Ct. Sud 1).; 7tl.; mq.; 3gym.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	40-0	Local.	Fri.		Kadgaon	3-0	w., str	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	6-0	Kolhapur	Sun.	6-0	Wadipir	1-4	w.	Sl (pr)., cs.; Viroba dev fr. (Mg. Vad 13).; 10tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	31-0	Bajar Bhogaon.	Wed.	2-0			w.	tl
Hukkeri Road.	40-0	Ajra	Fri.	5-0	Ajra	6-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; Coh.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Vaṭhār T. Udagāṅv; HK.; वडगर तर्फ उदगांव ..	N; 6-0	1·8; 1440; 268; 1288;	Kumbhoj 3-0
Vaṭhār T. Vadagāṅv; HK.; वठार तर्फ वडगांव ..	SE; 11-0	3·4; 1845; 361; 1236.	Kini 1-0
Vāyambosī; BVD.; वायबोसी ..	SW; 10-0	0·9; 40; 8, 37.	Achirne 10-0
Vazare; AJ.; वझरे ..	N; 5-0	3·7; 727; 152; 689.	Uttur 6-0
Velavaḷī; AJ.; वेळवटी ..	E; 4-0	1·9; 328; 57; 290.	Ajra 4-0
Veṅgaruḷ; BHD.; वेंगरुळ ..	S; 8-0	2·8; 845; 160; 804.	Gargoti 8-0
Veṅgasar; BVD.; वेंगसर ..	W; 14-0	4·0; 876; 177; 826.	Kelavali 5-0
Vesaraph; BVD.; वेसरफ ..	E; 5-0	3·9; 218; 50; 215.	Gagan Bavada. 5-0
Vesarḍe; BHD.; वेसर्डे ..	S; 13-0	3·7; 874; 171; 831.	Shengaon 9-4
Vesarḍe; BVD.; वेसर्डे ..	NE; 16-0	1·8; 418, 69; 234.	Kasaba Kale. 10-0
Vetavaḍe; BVD.; वेतवडे ..	E; 15-6	1·4; 418; 69; 416.	Kasaba Kale. 6-0
Vetavaḍe; PN.; वेतवडे ..	SW; 18-0	2·4; 721; 126; 706.	Kale Kasaba. 8-0
Vhanaguttī; BHD.; व्हनगुत्ती ..	NE; 6-0	0·6; 192; 32; 192.	Murgud 3-0
Viraḷe; SHW.; विरळे ..	N; 11-0	3·0; 755; 147; 609.	Charan 2-0
Viśāḷagaḍ; SHW.; विशाळगड ..	NW; 20-0	0·6; 79; 10; 40.	Amba 12-0
Viṭe; AJ.; विटे ..	SW; 4-0	4·0; 637; 181; 612.	Ajra 4-0
Yaḍrāv; SL.; यड्राव ..	W; 6-0	3·3; 1486; 280. 1268.	Ichalkaranji. 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Hatkanangale.	7-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	0-0	Local.	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	12-0	Vadgaon Kasaba.	Mon.	1-0	Local.		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2cs. (2c).; Hajrat Pir Urus (on 11th or 12th February).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	45-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	10-0		9-0	spr.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	45-0	Uttur	Sat.	0-0	Ajra	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling dev fr. (in February each year).; 3tl.; ch.
Hukkeri Road.	44-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0	Ajra	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur	41-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	2-0	Kadgaon	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Small fr. (Mg Vad 13); 4tl.; mq.; ch.
Kolhapur	48-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	33-0	Rajapur	11-0	rv., w.	2Sl (pr, m).; frs. 1) Kt. Sud 15. 2) Phg. Sud 15.; 5tl.
Kolhapur	29-0	Palsambe	Tue.	0-6		0-2	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	43-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	2-4	Kadgaon	4-0	str.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Kedarling fr, (Phg. Sud 1)., 3tl.
Kolhapur	25-0	Tisangi (Salvan.)	Fri.	3-4		1-4	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	18-0	Tisangi (Salvan.)	Fri.	0-4			rv.	Sl (pr).: tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	20-0	Kale Kasaba	Sat.	8-0			rv.	Sl (pr).. cs.; 3tl.; mq.; gym., lib.
Kolhapur	26-0	Murgud	Tue.	3-0		1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Kolhapur	41-0	Charan	Thu.	2-0	Kokrud	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Kedarling dev fr. (Ct Sud 15).; 2tl.; gym; dp.
Kolhapur	53-0	Malkapur	Fri.	18-0	Local.			mq.; 2dg.
Hukkeri Road.	46-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0	Ajra	4-0	c.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Nimshirgaon (Dumala.)	5-0	Johal karanji.	Fri.	2-0	Local.	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; Yallama dev fr. (in October).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.

Village name in English; Taluka abbreviation; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Yamage; KG.; यमगे ..	W; 25-0	2·4; 1751; 318; 1475.	Murgud 1-4
Yedagāṅv; BVD.; येडगांव ..	W; 11-0	3·4, 954; 193; 679.	Kokisare 4-0
Yelagud; HK.; येळगुड ..	N; 15-0	3·8; 2121; 410; 1047.	Local.
Yelāṇē; SHW.; येलाणें ..	N; 0-4	0·5: 463; 84: 288.	Malkapur 0-4
Yelavaḍe; RDN.; येलवडे ..	NE; 16-0	1·2; 1153; 219; 582.	Kolhapur 12-0
Yelavaḍī; SHW.; येळवडी ..	W; 11-0	3·7: 275: 61; 275.	Bhogaon 6-0
Yelavana Jugal; SHW.; येलवण जुगाई ..	W; 11-0	12·4; 1011: 221; 895.	Malkapur 9-0
Yelūr; SHW.; येलूर ..	N; 2-4	2·0; 1044; 186; 800.	Malkapur 1-4
Yemehaṭṭī; GGJ.; येमेहट्टी ..	S; 19-0	1·6; 295; 56: 277.	Nesari 6-0
Yemekoḍ; AJ.; येमेकोड ..	SE; 4-2	1·7; 266; 42; 250.	Ajra 4-0
Yenecavaṇḍī; GGJ.; येणेचवंडी.	SE; 7-0	1·6; 813: 141; 737.	Halkarni 2-0
Yeraṇḍape; BHD.; येरंडपे ..	SW; 9-0	2·2, 259; 45; 259.	Gargoti 0-0
Yeraṇḍole; AJ.; येरंडोळे ..	SW; 5-0	2·7; 492, 95: 446.	Ajra: 6-0
Yevaluj; PN.: येवलुज ..	S; 7-0	3·4; 2096; 378; 1822.	Panhala Kasaba. 6-0
Yevatī; KV.; येवती ..	S; 12-4	1·3; 987; 172; 951.	Kolhapur 14-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	37-0	Murgud	Tue.	1-4		0-1	t.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Mhai fr. (on any day in Phalgun); 6tl.; M.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	45-0	Gagan Bavada.	Thu.	9-0	Gagan Bavada.	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl
Kolhapur	12-0	Hupari	Sat	2-0		2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (c). Hanuman Jayanti fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 7tl.; mq.; dg., gym.; lib.; dp.; A Small fort.
Kolhapur	29-0	Malkapur	Fri	0-4		0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ninai devi fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 2tl.; dh.; gym.
Kolhapur	12-0	Ghotavade	Mon.	1-0	Ghotavade	0-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; 2gym.
Kolhapur	27-0	Bhogaon	Wed.	6-0	Malkapur	13-0	rv.	
Kolhapur	38-0	Malkapur	Fri.	9-0		10-0	w., rv., str.	Sl (pr).; Shri Jugai devi fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 5tl.; mq. dh.
Kolhapur	30-0	Malkapur	Fri.	1-4		1-4	rv., str.	Sl (pr)., cs.; Shri Kedarling dev fr. (Ct. Sud 15). 4tl.; gym.
Belgaum	24-0	Nesari	Thu.	6-0		0-0	w.	tl.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri.	4-0		4-4	str.	tl
Malkapur	18-0	Halkarni	Wed.	2-0	Halkarni	3-0	w.	Sl (pr)., Dulkai devi fr. (Mg. Vad 7).; 3tl.; gym.
Kolhapur	42-0	Kadgaon	Fri.	2-0		7-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Hukkeri Road.	48-0	Ajra	Fri	8-0	Ajra	7-0	c.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	8-0	Padal	Mon.	0-6		4-0		Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs.; fr. on the first Sunday after (Ct. Sud 15).; 7tl.; M.; mq.; 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Kolhapur	14-0	Ispurli	Fri.	2-0		1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (c).; tl.; gym.; lib. (mob).

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Aḍūre* ; CGD. ; अडूरे ..	W ; 2–0	1·0 ; 148 ; 28 ; 143.	Chandgad 2–0
Ālabādevī ; CGD. ; आलबादेवी ..	N ; 13–4	2·0 ; 450 ; 87 ; 437.	Adkur 2–0
Amaroḷī ; CGD. ; अमरोळी ..	E ; 8–0	2·0 ; 806 ; 160 ; 795.	Adkur 2–0
Āṁbevāḍī ; CGD. ; आंबेवाडी ..	E ; 10–0	2·0 ; 350 ; 74 ; 355.	Halkarni 1–0
Asagāṅv ; CGD. ; असगांव ..	SE ; 2–4	2·6 ; 546 ; 99 ; 540.	Chandgad 3–0
Asagoḷī ; CGD. ; असगोळी ..	E ; 8–0	0·0 ; 317 ; 60 ; 316.	Adkur 2–0
Basarage : CGD. ; बसरगे	E ; 11–0	3·7 ; 1344 ; 224 ; 1323.	Halkarni 3–0
Bhogolī ; CGD ; भोगोली ..	SE ; 8–4	6·7 ; 594 ; 118 ; 566.	Chandgad 4–0
Bijūr ; CGD. ; बिजूर	NW ; 4–0	1·6 ; 272 ; 45 ; 272.	Chandgad 2–4
Bogilge Dukkaravāḍī ; CGD. बोगिलगे डुक्करवाडी ..	SE ; 12–0	3·2 ; 1408 ; 250 ; 1366.	Halkarni 2–0
Boñjurḍī ; CGD. ; बोंजुर्डी ..	N ; 12–0	0·4 ; 432 ; 92 ; 403.	Kowad ; 3–0
Bukihāḷ ; CGD. ; बुकीहाळ ..	E ; 25–4	1·4 ; 342 ; 66 ; 335.	Local.
Candagaḍ ; CGD. ; चंदगड ..	HQ.	5·8 ; 2782 ; 530 ; 1423.	Kowad 2–0
Ciñcaṇē ; CGD. ; चिंचणें ..	E ; 25–0	6·0, 971 ; 168 ; 925.	Halkarni 4–0
Dāṭe Mouje ; CGD. : दाटे मौजे ..	NE ; 7–0	3·3 ; 994 ; 186 ; 939.	Uchagaon 4–0
Devaravāḍī ; CGD. ; देवरवाडी ..	E ; 19–0	2·4 ; 512 ; 96 ; 512.	Chandgad 10–0
Dhamāpūr ; CGD. ; धामापूर ..	NW ; 8–2	3·0 ; 365 ; 85 ; 304.	Belgaum 9–0
Ḍhekoḷī ; CGD. ; ढेकोळी ..	SE ; 17–0	2·0 ; 475 ; 70 ; 463.	Halkarni 3–0
Ḍholagaravāḍī : CGD. ; ढोलगरवाडी	E ; 12–0	0·7 ; 705 ; 127 ; 644.	Kowad 4–0
Diṅḍalakop ; CGD. ; दिंडलकोप ..	E ; 21–0	1·3 ; 411 ; 74 ; 375.	Kowad 1–4

* The information about the villages in Chandgad taluka (formerly

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day: Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	28-0	Chandgad	Thu.	2-0	Chandgad	2-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Ekadashi Saptaha (on Ps. Vad 11).;
Belgaum	32-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Adkur	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Belgaum	25-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Local.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg.).; tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Here	Sat.	5-0	Local.	0-4	w	Sl (pr).
Belgaum	23-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	1-0	Naganwadi.	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg.).; 3tl.
Belgaum	33-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Amroli	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (in Jan).; tl.
Belgaum	14-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Karve	5-4	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Bhaveshwari fr. (Mg. 15).; 7tl.; gym.
Belgaum	28-0	Chandgad	Thu.	4-0	Kanur Bk.	2-0	n.	2Sl (2pr).; Mahi fr. (Vad 13).; 5tl.
Belgaum	31-0	Kanur Kh.	Mon.	8-0	Local	0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Local.	Fri.		Tambulwadi	2-0	w.	2Sl (pr, m); pyt.; fr. (Mg. Sud 15).; 3tl.; gym. lib.; dp.
Belgaum	18-0	Kowad		3-0	Adkur	1-4	w.	Sl (pr). tl.
Belgaum	26-0	Local.	Thu.		Hosur	2-0	n.	Sl (pr).;
Belgaum	20-0	Kowad		2-0	Local.		w	4Sl (3pr, h).; 2cs. (mis). Khalanath fr. (on 3rd Tue. of Mg). Lakshmi fr. (on 2nd Tue. in Mg). 7tl.; 3mq.; dg.; dh.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Belgaum	19-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	3-0	Kowad	2-0	rv	2Sl (2pr).; cs. (mis).; Masanai h. (in Mg).
Belgaum	10-0	Turkewadi	Wed	0-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; Laxmi fr. (Once in 3 years).; 4tl.
Belgaum	32-0	Kanur Kh	Mon.	2-0	Vaijanath	2-0	pl.	Sl (pr).; fr. (on Ct. Sud 15).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Belgaum	9-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	6-0	Kanur Bk.	3-0	n.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (Mg Vad 11).; Dahikala fr. (on Mrg Sud 13).; 4tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Belgundi	3-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).. 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Belgaum	14-0	Kowad.		4-0	Karve.	4-0	w.	Sl (pr.); Sateri fr. (in Mg.); 6tl.; gym.;
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad		1-4	Kadali	1-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; Mangai fr. (in Mg.).; Maruti fr.; Ct. Sud. 15; 2tl.; mq.

a part of the Belgaum district is given separately.

Village name in English : Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Dundage ; CGD. ; दुंडगे ..	E : 22-0	1·2 ; 699 ; 127, 671.	Kowad 1-4
Gavase ; CGD : गवसे ..	N ; 5-0	3·6 ; 843 ; 163 ; 779.	Chandgad 5-0
Ghoṭagevāḍī ; CGD. ; घोटगेवाडी.	SW ; 24-0	2·0 ; 1187 ; 225 : 674.	Bhedase 2-0
Ghulevāḍī ; CGD. ; घुलेवाडी ..	E. 21-0	0·9, 379 : 67 : 370.	Kowad 2-0
Guḍavale Khu. ; CGD. ; गुडवळे खु.	W ; 6-0	7·0 ; 401 ; 90 ; 460.	Here 2-0
Guḍevāḍī ; CGD. ; गुडेवाडी ..	NE ; 9-0	1·0 ; 651 ; 118 ; 609.	Halkarni 3-0
Hajagolī ; CGD. ; हजगोळी ..	SE ; 22-0	7·1 ; 883 : 168 ; 820.	Belgaum 9-0
Halakarṇī ; CGD. ; हलकर्णी ..	E. 9-0	4·7 : 1219 ; 218 ; 1073.	Local.
Hālāravāḍī : CGD. ; हालारवाडी ..	E : 8-0	2·6 ; 402 ; 74, 398.	Halkarni 1-0
Hambīre ; CGD. ; हंबीरे ..	SE : 0-5	0·6 ; 121, 27 ; 111.	Chandgad 1-0
Here ; CGD. : हेरे ..	S : 5-0	3·5 ; 1197 ; 270 : 1063.	Local.
Hiṇḍagāṅv ; CGD. ; हिंडगांव ..	N ; 2-0	2·2 ; 607, 119 ; 581.	Chandgad 2-0
Hosūr ; CGD. ; होसूर ..	E : 23-4	1·8 ; 625 ; 112 ; 612.	Kowad 3-0
Hundalevāḍī ; CGD. ; हुंदळेवाडी.	E : 26-4	0·5 ; 235 : 38, 223.	Kowad 2-0
Ibrāmapūr ; CGD. : इब्रामपूर ..	N. 5-0	2·8 ; 697 : 137, 678.	Chandgad 5-0
Isāpūr : CGD. ; इसापूर ..	W : 13-0	8·1 ; 336 75 ; 323.	Here 12-0
Jakkanahaṭṭī , CGD. ; जक्कनहट्टी.	E : 22-0	4·0 ; 166 ; 31 ; 166.	Kowad 3-0
Jāmbare ; CGD. ; जांबरे ..	W : 7-0	3·7 · 350, 75 ; 345.	Chandagad 7-0
Jaṅgamahaṭṭī ; CGD. ; जंगमहट्टी.	E : 15-0	4·2 ; 830 ; 145 ; 814.	Turkewadi 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar: Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum 15-0	Kowad 1-4	Daddi 8-0		Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. (in Mg).; 4tl.; M; gym.
Belgaum 32-0	Chandagad Thu. 5-0	Hindgaon 4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Pavanai fr. (on Mg. 15).; 3tl.
Belgaum 47-0	Here Sat. 22-0	Patna 20-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; fr. (on Mrg. Sud 15).; 6tl.; lib.; dp
Belgaum 15-0	Kowad 2-0	Tambul-wadi 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Belgaum 32-0	Here Sat. 2-0	Here 1-0	rv., spr.	Sl (m).; fr. (on Mg. Sud 9). tl.
Belgaum 19-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi. Fri. 2-0	Belgaum-Vengurla Rd. 2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; tl.
Belgaum 9-0	Belgaum Sat. 9-0	Belgundi 6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 3tl. gym.
Belgaum 18-0	Turkewadi Wed. 4-0	Local. 1-0	w.	Sl (pr); cs. (mis).; fr. (of Mahi in Feb.).; 3tl.; ch.; dp.; Cch
Belgaum 18-0	Turkewadi Wed. 5-0	Belebhat 1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; gym.
Belgaum 25-0	Chandgad Thu. 1-0	Chandgad 0-5	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg. on Fri).; 2tl.
Belgaum 3-0	Local. Sat.	Local	w.	2Sl (pr, m).; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; 6tl.; mq.; lib.; dp.; Cch.
Belgaum 26-0	Chandgad Thu. 2-0	Local 0-3	w., n.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; 2tl.
Belgaum 13-0	Kowad 2-0	Local. 0-1	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum 15-0	Kowad Thu. 2-0	Kagani 0-2	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum 30-0	Chandgad Thu. 5-0	Hindgaon 3-0	el.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg); 4tl.
Belgaum 37-0	Here Sat. 12-0	Here 1-0	w.	Sl (m).; tl.
Belgaum 14-0	Kowad 3-0	Kowad 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Belgaum 33-0	Chandgad Thu. 7-0	Chandgad 7-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (on Ps. Sud 1).; 4tl.
Belgaum 15-0	Turkewadi Wed. 2-0	Here 2-0	w	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Jaṭevāḍī ; CGD. ; जटेवाडी ..	NE ; 0–0	8·9 ; 387 ; 64 ; 387.	Halkarni 2–0
Jelugaḍe ; CGD. ; जेळुगडे ..	SE ; 7·4	4·1 ; 449 ; 8 ; 448.	Patne 2–0
Jogevāḍī ; CGD. : जोगेवाडी ..		0·6 ; Deserted.	
Kaḍalage Kh. ; CGD. ; कडलगे खुर्द	E : 18–0	5·8 ; 344 ; 56 ; 335.	Turkewadi 4–0
Kaḍilage Bk. ; CGD. ; कडिलगे बु।।	E ; 19–0	1·7 ; 673 ; 125 ; 667.	Turkewadi 4–0
Kāgaṇī ; CGD. ; कागणी ..	NE ; 24–4	2·1 ; 995 ; 168 ; 964.	Kowad 2–0
Kājīrṇe ; CGD. ; काजीर्णे ..	NW ; 1–4	1·7 ; 116 ; 21 ; 116.	Chandgad 1–4
Kālakundrī ; CGD. ; कालकुंद्री ..	NE ; 26–4	2·9 ; 1740 ; 28 : 1583.	Kowad 2–0
Kalīvaḍe ; CGD. ; कलीवडे ..	E ; 11–0	3·4 ; 291 ; 57 ; 287.	Halkarni 2–4
Kānaḍī ; CGD. ; कानडी .	N ; 5–0	1·0 ; 371 ; 69 ; 371.	Chandgad 4–0
Kānūr Bk. ; CGD. ; कानूर बु।। ..	W ; 6–0	3·1 ; 486 ; 93 ; 449.	Chandgad 6–0
Kānūr Kh. ; CGD. ; कानूर खुर्द ..	W ; 8–5	6·9 ; 755 ; 156 ; 655.	Chandgad 10–0
Karanjagāṅv ; CGD. : करंजगांव ..	E : 7–0	2·2 ; 484 ; 88 : 472.	Halkarni 3–0
Kārave ; CGD. ; कारवे ..	E ; 14–0	3·4 ; 931 ; 159 ; 871.	Turkewadi 2–0
Keñcevāḍī ; CGD. ; केंचेवडी .	E : 8–0	0·8 : 348 ; 54 ; 347.	Adkur 2–4
Keravaḍe ; CGD. ; केरवडे ..	E ; 8–0	1·2 ; 438 ; 80 ; 426.	Adkur 4–0
Khāmadale ; CGD. ; खामदळे ..	W ; 5–2	1·0 ; 120 ; 25 : 117.	Here 1·4
Kiṇī ; CGD ; किणी ..	NW ; 20–0	1·6 ; 1058 ; 195 ; 931.	Kowad 4–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	17-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi	Fri.	2-0	Belgaum-Vengurla Road.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cl. (mp).
Belgaum	12-0	Hero	Sat.	2-0	Patne	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; 3tl.
					Deserted			
Belgaum	16-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Karve	2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Karve	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad.		2-0	Local.		rv., w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	26-4	Chandgad	Thu.	1-4	Hindgaon	0-3	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl
Belgaum	18-0	Kowad		2-0	Kagani	4-0	rv.	2Sl (pr, m).; fr. (on Asn. Sud 10); 11tl.; mq. gym.; ch.; lib.
Belgaum	19-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	5-0	Local	0 4	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (on Mg. 15).; tl.
Belgaum	28-0	Chandgad	Thu.	4-0	Hindgaon	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Kanur Kh.	Mon.	1-0	Local.		w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (on Mg. Vad 9).; Dahikala fr. (on Kt. Vad 10).; 2tl.
Belgaum	32-0	Local	Mon.		Local.		w., rv.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Dahikala fr. (on Mrg. Sud. 15); Mahi fr. (on Mg. Vad 13); 5tl.; dh.; lib.; dp.
Belgaum	22-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	8-0	Belebhat	1 4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	12-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	2-0	Karve	0 2	w.	Sl (pr).; Laxmi fr. (once *in two years* in Ct.). 6tl.; dh.; gym.
Belgaum	25-4	Adkur	Wed.	2 4	Stavne	2 0	w.	Sl (pr).; fr. in Kt.; 2tl.
Belgaum	24-4	Naganwadi	Sun.	2-4	Naganwadi	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl
Belgaum	28-0	Hero	Sat.	1-4	Patne	2-4	w	Sl (m).; tl.
Belgaum	22-0	Kowad		4-0	Kagani	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kiṭavāḍ ; CGD. ; किटवाड ..	NE. 28–4	1·5 ; 601 ; 109 ; 572.	Kowad 6–0
Kiṭavaḍe ; CGD. ; किटवडे ..	E : 11–0	6·1 ; 67 ; 12 ; 65.	Turkewadi 3–0
Kodalī ; CGD. ; कोदाळी ..	S, 10–0	25·2 ; 1268 ; 237 ; 1127.	Patne. 7–0
Kokare ; CGD. ; कोकरे ..	W ; 3–0	2·3 ; 439 ; 87 ; 437.	Chandgad 2–0
Kolīk ; CGD. ; कोलीक ..	S ; 30–0	9·4 ; 449 ; 95 ; 426.	Turkewadi 6–0
Kolindre Inam ; CGD. ; कोळींद्रे इनाम.	S ; 1–4	1·6 ; 270, 58 ; 268.	Chandgad 2–0
Kolindre Khu. ; CGD. ; कोळींद्रे खु.	SE ; 1–0	1·8 ; 342 ; 61 ; 330.	Here 1–4
Konevāḍī ; CGD. ; कोनेवाडी ..	E, 6–0	0·8 ; 417 ; 68. 413.	Halkarni 3–0
Koraj ; CGD. ; कोरज ..	E, 6–0	2·7 ; 660 ; 101 ; 651.	Chandgad 3–0
Kovaḍ ; CGD. ; कोवाड .	E, 23–0	3·6, 2582 ; 453 ; 2367 ;	Local.
Kaulage ; CGD. ; कौलगे ..	E ; 25–4	1·7, 283 ; 50 ; 266.	Kowad 4–0
Kudanūr ; CGD. ; कुदनूर ..	E, 24–0	3·5 ; 2069 369, 1856	Kowad ; 4–0
Kuraṇī Buzavaḍe ; CGD. ; कुरणी बुझवडे.	NW. 5–0	5·5 ; 1140 ; 210, 1097.	Chandgad 7–0
Kurtanavāḍī ; CGD., कुर्तनवाडी ..	E ; 7–0	0·5 ; 248 ; 40 ; 238.	Chandgad 4–0
Lākūḍavāḍī ; CGD. ; लाकूडवाडी ..	SE ; 13–4	0·9 ; 330 ; 62 ; 329	Turkewadi 3–0
Māḍavaḷe ; CGD. ; माडवळे ..	E. 15–0	4·8 ; 670 ; 110 ; 639.	Turkewadi 1–4
Mahālevāḍī ; CGD. ; महालेवाडी ..	E ; 22–0	1·0 ; 523 ; 90 ; 509.	Kowad 3–0
Mahaluṅge Inam ; CGD. ; महाळुंगे इनाम. ..	NW ; 4–0	1·4. 236 ; 50, 236	Chandgad 5–0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	24-0	Kowad	Thu.	6-0	Hosur	1-1	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	16-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	3-0	Kaliwade	1-4	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	31-0	Here	Sat.	9-0	Patane	4-0		2Sl (2pr); Mauli fr. (on Phg. Vad 9).; 2tl.
Belgaum	28-0	Chandgad	Thu.	2-0	Chandgad	3-0	w., t., rv.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (on 3rd Fri. of Mg).; 3tl.
Belgaum	8-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	6-0	Belgundi	4-0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Chandgad	Thu.	2-0	Chandgad	1-4	w., rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (on 4th Mon. of Mg); tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Here	Sat.	1-4	Here	1-0	w.	Sl (pr); Mahi fr. (in Mg).; 2tl.
Belgaum	21-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	1-0	Kurtanwadi	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	22-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	0-4	Local	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Shivaratri fr. (in Mg).; 2tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Local	Thu		Local.		rv.	2Sl (2pr).; cs.; 3tl.; mq.; gym; lib.; dp.
Belgaum	12-0	Kowad	Thu.	4-0	Hosur	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).
Belgaum	12-0	Kowad	Thu.	4-0	Kadoli	10-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr)., 2cs. (2 mis).; Siddheshwar fr. (in Mg).; 4tl.; 2mq.; gym. ch., lib.
Belgaum	29-0	Chandgad	Thu.	7-0	Mahalunge	2-0	rv., n., w.	Sl (pr); Kalanath fr. (on Mg. 15).; 5tl.
Belgaum	22-0	Naganwadi	Sun	1-0	Local		w.	Sl (pr).; tl
Belgaum	18-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	3-0	Tambulewadi	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl
Belgaum	15-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	1-4	Turkewadi	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad	Thu	3-0	Kowad	2-0	w	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Belgaum	20-0	Chandgad	Thu.	5-0	Mahalunge	0-1	w	Sl (pr).; cs.; 3tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance
Mahaluṅge ; CGD. ; महाळुंगे ..	S ; 27–0	8·7 ; 257 ; 49 ; 137.	Chandgad 4–0
Malagaḍ ; CGD. ; मलगड ..	SE ; 13–0	0·5 ; 99 , 17 ; 96.	Halkarni 3–0
Malatavāḍī ; CGD. ; मलतवाडी ..	E ; 22–0	2·0 ; 1139 ; 207 ; 1075.	Kowad 4–0
Māṇagāṅv ; CGD. ; माणगांव ..	SE ; 14–0	3·1 ; 1719 ; 322 ; 1594.	Turkewadi 5–0
Māṅḍedurg ; CGD. ; मांडेदुर्ग ..	E ; 17–0	2·8 ; 800 ; 140 ; 762.	Turkewadi 4–0
Miravel ; CGD. ; मिरवेल ..	W ; 10–0	3·5 ; 532 ; 135 ; 492.	Here 15·0
Morevāḍī ; CGD. ; मोरेवाडी ..	N ; 12–4	0·7 ; 161 ; 29 ; 163.	Adkur 2–4
Morle ; CGD. ; मोर्ले ..	SW ; 22–0	2·2 ; 480 ; 105 ; 424.	Bhedase 8–0
Moṭanavāḍī ; CGD. ; मोटनवाडी ..	SE ; 7–0	0·9 ; 232 ; 49 ; 231.	Patne 0–4
Mugaḷī ; CGD. ; मुगळी ..	E ; 9–0	1·2 ; 328 ; 76 , 328.	Adkur 2–0
Nāganavāḍī ; CGD. ; नागनवाडी ..	E ; 4–0	0·9 ; 548 ; 108 ; 440.	Adkur 8,0
Nāgaradaḷe ; CGD. ; नागरदळे ..	NW ; 20–0	2·2 ; 1058 ; 190 ; 1017.	Kowad 3–0
Nāgave ; CGD. ; नागवे ..	SW ; 4–0	2·8 ; 345 ; 77 ; 419.	Chandgad 4–0
Nāndavaḍe ; CGD. ; नांदवडे .	SE ; 4–0	3·0 ; 844 ; 139 ; 805.	Patne 2–0
Narevāḍī ; CGD. ; नरेवाडी ..	NE , 8–0	0·7 ; 188 ; 32 ; 188.	Halkarni 2–0
Nhāvelī ; CGD ; न्हावेली ..	W ; 4–0	1·4 ; 194 ; 42 ; 104 ;	Chandgad 3–0
Niṭṭūr ; CGD. ; निट्टूर ..	E ; 22–0	3·6 ; 1578 ; 266 ; 1401.	Kowad 3–0
Pārle ; CGD ; पार्ले ..	SE ; 7–0	4·3 ; 583 , 114 ; 583.	Patne 1–0
Pāṭaṇē ; CGD. ; पाटणें ..	SE ; 7–0	1·8 ; 744 ; 155 ; 641.	Local

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	27-0	Chandgad	Thu.	4-0	Belgundi	10-0	n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi.	Fri.	0-4	Tambulwadi.	2-6	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	20-0	Kowad	Thu.	4-0	Kowad	2-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. 2tl.; gym.
Belgaum	10-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	5-0	Tambulwadi.	4-0	w.	2Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; cs.; Mankeshwar fr. (at Dasami).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Belgaum	12-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Turkewadi Hath.	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Laxmi fr. (in Mg. 15).; 6tl.; gym.
Belgaum	40-0	Here	Sat.	15-0	Here	14-0	w., t.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Sud. 15).; 3tl.
Belgaum	34-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-4	Adkur	2-0	t.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	45-0	Here	Sat.	20-0	Konal Katta	2-0	w., spr.	Sl (m).; tl.
Belgaum	12-0	Here	Sat.	2-0	Patane	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	33-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Amroli	7-0	t.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	24-0	Local	Sun.		Local.		w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (cr).; tl.; dh.; lib.; 2dp.
Belgaum	13-0	Kowad	Thu.	3-0	Kagani	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Chandgad	Thu.	4-0	Chandgad	4-0	rv., w.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mrg. Sud. 15).; 7tl.
Belgaum	22-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	2-0	Naganwadi	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr.; tl.
Belgaum	18-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi.	Fri.	2-0	Belgaum-Vengurla Rd.	0-½	w.	Sl (pr).
Belgaum	20-0	Chandgad	Thu.	3-0	Chandgad	4-0	rv., spr.	Sl (pr).; Mahl fr. (on 4th Mon).; 3tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad	Thu.	3-0	Kowad	1-0	w.	Sl (m).; cs.; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Belgaum	28-0	Here	Sat.	1-4	Patane	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	23-0	Here	Sat.	3-0	Local.		w.	3Sl (2pr, m).; Mahi fr. (on the first Sat. of Mg.).; Nilagiri fr. (on 4th Jan). 3tl.; dh.; dp.; Coh.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pilaṇī ; CGD. ; पिळणी ..	SW ; 11-0	7·4 ; 423 ; 74 ; 423.	Chandgad 12-0
Porevāḍī ; CGD. ; पोरेवाडी ..	E ; 8-0	1·0 ; 202 ; 33 ; 202.	Adkur 2-0
Povācivāḍī ; CGD. ; पोवाची वाडी.	NE ; 5-0	0·8 ; 222 ; 49 ; 206.	Adkur 4-0
Pundare ; CGD. ; पुंदरे ..	W ; 8-0	2·3 ; 232 ; 46 ; 224.	Chandgad 8-0
Rāīdevāḍī ; CGD. ; राईदेवाडी .	SE ; 6-4	0·5 ; 122 ; 19 ; 122.	Patane 0-4
Rājagolī Bk. ; CGD. ; राजगोळी बु।। ..	E ; 26-0	2·6 ; 710 ; 118 ; 703.	Kowad 5-0
Rājagolī Kh. ; CGD. ; राजगोळी खुर्द	E ; 28-0	3·8 ; 1257 ; 223 ; 1032.	Kowad 5-0
Saḍeguḍavale ; CGD. ; सडेगुडवळे.	SW ; 11-0	5·5 ; 490 ; 80 ; 490.	Chandgad 12-0
Sārolī ; CGD. ; सारोळी ..	SE ; 19-0	1·3 ; 267 ; 46 ; 253.	Turkewadi 7-0
Sātavaṇe ; CGD. ; सातवणे ..	E ; 7-0	2·7 ; 566 ; 104 ; 545.	Adkur 3-0
Savarḍe Inām ; CGD. ; सावर्डे इनाम	E ; 5-0	1·0 : 202 ; 38 ; 202.	Changdad 2-0
Savarḍe Khālsā ; CGD. ; सावर्डे खालसा	N ; 3-0	7·5 ; 150 ; 30 ; 149.	Here 0-4
Śenolī Bk. ; CGD. ; सेनोळी बु।। ..	E ; 20-0	1·4 ; 697 ; 115 ; 669.	Uchagaon 4-0
Śevāle ; CGD. ; शेवाळे .	SE ; 6-0	2·1 ; 288 ; 58 ; 285.	Patane 1-0
Śinolī Kh. ; CGD ; शिनोळी खुर्द ..	E ; 20-0	0·7 ; 577 ; 100 ; 576.	Uchagaon 4-0
Śipūr CGD , शिपूर .	SE ; 4-0	0·8 ; 112 ; 22 ; 112.	Here 2-4
Śiragāṅv ; CGD. ; शिरगांव ..	E ; 1-4	3·6 ; 792 ; 156 ; 768.	Chandgad 3-0
Śirolī ; CGD. ; शिरोली ..	N ; 14-0	2·5 ; 474 ; 90 ; 447.	Adkur 4-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	34-0	Kanur Kh.	Mon.	2-0	Kanur Kh.	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; fr. (Mg. Vad. 15).; Dahikala fr. (Kt. Sud. 15).; 3tl.
Belgaum	25-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Amroli	0-6	n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	27-0	Adkur	Wed.	4-0	Chandgad	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Kanur kh.	Mon.	0-4	Local.	0-2	w., rv.	Mahi fr. (Mg. Vad. 13).; Dahikala fr. (Kt. Sud. 15).; 4tl.
Belgaum	12-0	Here	Sat.	2-0	Patane	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr.; tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad	Thu.	5-0	Daddisa-Dudheri.	4-4	rv.	Maruti fr. (in Ct).; Datta fr. (in Mrg).; St.; M.
Belgaum	15-0	Kowad	Thu.	5-0	Daddita Dukeri.	2-0	w.	Si (pr).; cs. (mis).; Maruti fr. (in Ct).; Patriban fr.; 5tl.; mq.
Belgaum	34-0	Kanur Kh.	Mon.	2-0	Kanur Kh.	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala fr. (Kt. Sud. 15).; Dahikala fr. (Mrg. Vad. 15).; 3tl.
Belgaum	14-0	Turkhewadi	Wed.	7-0	Belgundi	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Belgaum	24-0	Adkur	Wed.	3-0	Local.		w., n.	Sl (pr).; fr. (in Kt).; 4tl.
Belgaum	26-0	Chandgad	Thu.	3-0	Patane	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Here	Sat.	0-4	Here	0-6	w.	Mahi fr. (in Mg).; tl.
Belgaum	10-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	7-0	Shiroli Hath.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 4tl.; gym.
Belgaum	22-0	Here	Sat.	3-0	Patane	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; tl.
Belgaum	10-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	7-0	Shinoli Hath.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	28-0	Here	Sat.	2-4	Patane	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in Mg). tl.
Belgaum	25-0	Chandgad	Thu.	3-0	Shrigaon Hath.	0-4	w.	Sl (pr).; cs. (mis).; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; lib.
Belgaum	34-0	Adkur	Wed.	4-0	Adkur	4-0	t.	Sl (pr).; 6tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Śivānge Lakkikaṭṭe ; CGD. ; शिवांगे लक्कीकट्टे ..	SE ; 14-4	2·8 ; 1150 ; 184 1113.	Turkewadi 5-0
Sonāravāḍī ; CGD. ; सोनारवाडी .	E ; 10-0	1·4 ; 277 ; 54 ; 275.	Adkur 3-0
Sulaye ; CGD. सुळये ..	SE ; 1-4	0·9 ; 179 ; 45 ; 179.	Chandgad 1-4
Sunḍī ; CGD ; सुंडी ..	E ; 22-0	4·5 ; 1470 ; 242 ; 1428.	Turkewadi 4-0
Supě ; CGD. ; सुपें ..	E ; 13-0	0·9 ; 55 ; 13 ; 52.	Turkewadi 4-0
Surute ; CGD. ; सुरुते ..	SE ; 18-0	2·0 ; 501 ; 85 ; 490.	Turkewadi 10-0
Tāḍasinahāḷ ; CGD. . ताडसीनहाळ .	E ; 14-0	1·0 ; 314 ; 60 ; 307.	Turkewadi 1-0
Taḷaguḷi ; CGD. ; तळगुळी .	E ; 25-0	1·1 ; 306 ; 58 ; 274.	Kaleti 12-0
Tāmbuḷavāḍī ; CGD. ; तांबूळवाडी .	NE ; 9-0	0·8 ; 506 ; 88 ; 449.	Halkarni 12-0
Tuḍaye ; CGD. ; तुडये ..	S.E. 21-0	8·5 ; 1708 ; 290 ; 1536.	Turkewadi 9-0
Turkevāḍī ; CGD. ; तुर्केवाडी ..	E ; 13-0	5·5 ; 2000 ; 343 ; 1567.	Local.
Umagāṅv ; CGD. उमगांव ..	W ; 6-0	7·4 ; 682 ; 123 ; 656.	Chandgad 4-0
Utsāḷī ; CGD. ; उत्साळी ..	N ; 12-0	1·2 ; 302 ; 60 ; 365.	Adkur 2-0
Varagāṅv ; CGD. ; वरगांव ..	NE ; 9-0	1·3 ; 206 ; 41 ; 205.	Halkarni 4-0
Vizaṇě ; CGD. ; विझणें ..	E ; 12-0	1·6 ; 404 ; 84 ; 374.	Adkur 2-0
Vaghotre ; CGD. ; वाघोत्रे ..	W ; 11-0	5·9 ; 285 ; 67 ; 282.	Here 7-0
Vāḷakuḷī ; CGD. ; वाळकुळी ..	E ; 7-0	1·3 ; 120 ; 26 ; 120.	Chandgad 3-0
Yartenahaṭṭī ; CGD. ; यर्तेनहट्टी ..	E ; 30-0	1·7 ; 72 ; 17 ; 72.	Kakti 18-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	19-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	5-0	Tambula-wadi.	5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; cs. (mis).; 2tl.
Belgaum	26-0	Adkur	Wed.	3-0	Amroli	1-4	Br.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	29-0	Chandgad	Thu.	1-4	Chandgad	1-4	spr.	Sl (pr).; Mahi fr. (in every Mg).; 3tl.
Belgaum	12-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Karve	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	12-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	4-0	Local	0-1	cl.	tl.
Belgaum	17-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	10-0	Bolgundi	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.
Belgaum	13-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	1-0	Turkewadi Hath.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Daddi	Mon.	4-0	Daddi Hukeri.	0-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairao fr. (in An).; tl.; mq.
Belgaum	17-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi.	Fri.	17-0	Belgaum Vengurla Rd.	0-6	w.	Sl (pr).; cs.; 2tl.; lib.
Belgaum	12-0	Turkewadi	Wed.	9-0	Belgundi	4-0	w.	3Sl (2pr, m).; 2cs. (2mis).; Mahi fr. (in Mg).; 4tl. gym.; ch.; lib.
Belgaum	15-0	Local.	Wed.		Turkewadi Hath.	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; 4cs.; Khaladeo-nath fr. (in Mg).; mq.; gym.; lib.; dp.
Belgaum	30-0	Chandgad	Thu.	4-0	Chandgad	0-0	rv., w.	2Sl (2pr).; Mahi fr. (on Ps. Sud. 15).; 4tl.
Belgaum	32-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Adkur	2-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Belgaum	20-0	Bogilge Dukkarwadi.	Fri.	4-0	Belgaum-Road.	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).;
Belgaum	34-0	Adkur	Wed.	2-0	Adkur	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Belgaum	32-0	Here	Sat.	7-0	Here	6-0	spr.	Sl (m).; tl.
Belgaum	26-0	Naganwadi	Sun.	1-4	Naganwadi	1-0	n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	15-0	Daddi	Mon.	4-0	Daddi-ta-Hukkeri.	1-4	w.	Maruti fr. (in Ct).; tl.

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BOMBAY : PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS.